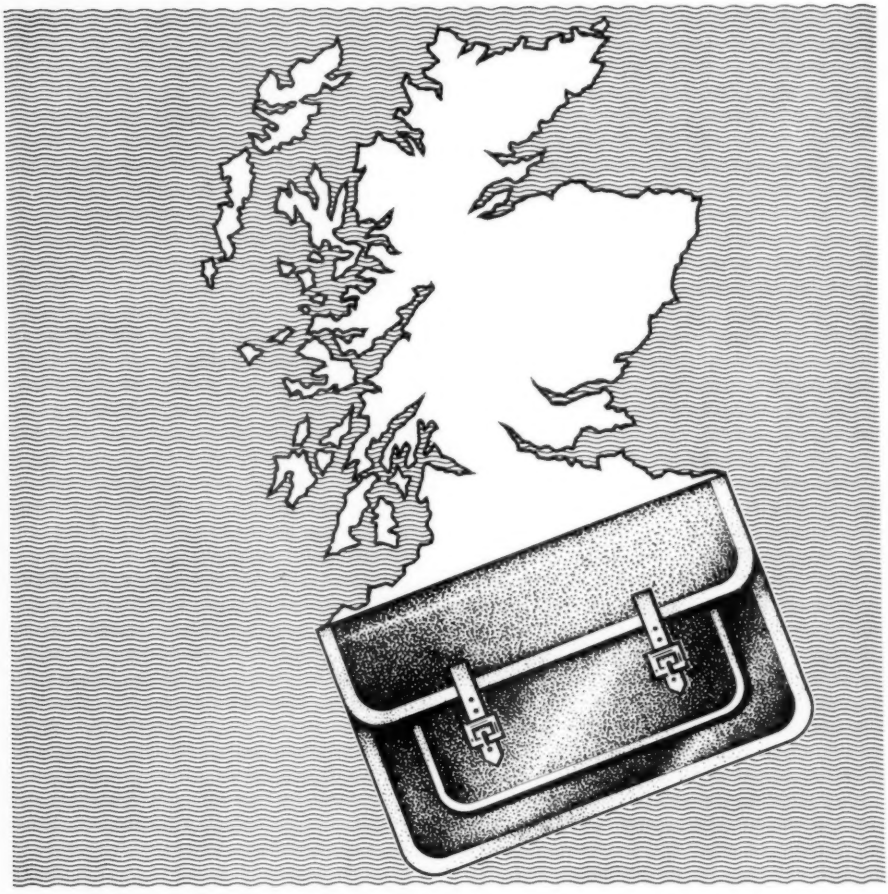
Trends in Education



1976/4

December 1976

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DipHE
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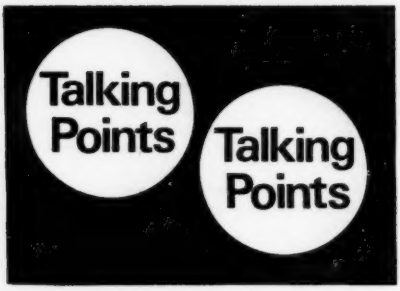


A fragment (after the School of Barbiana)

. . . There are times when we get the impression that you think religious education is important for us, though somehow you don't seem able to say quite why, or to spare much time for it on the timetable, especially if we are taking one of those public examinations you get so anxious about. But then we notice that the same thing happens with community service or careers education. Perhaps you are doing two jobs, preparing some of us for examinations and the rest of us for life.

Talking of RE, it is strange how RE is you telling us about religion in the first few years of secondary school and then suddenly in the fourth year, as though a whistle had blown, it is all discussion. You say you want to know what we think and tell us we must make up our own minds about religion and all those doom-laden problems you mention. This puzzles us. Is there a rule that 11 is too early to discuss and 14 too late to learn anything more about religion? How can we say what we think about these questions if we have not been helped to think and speak about them in the first year? And anyway, do you really want to listen, really want to hear what the world looks like through our eyes, what we hope for and what we fear? Forgive us for doubting in this way, but to us most of your listening seems to be with a stethoscope. You draw conclusions from the words, but do not attend to what is being said or what it might mean.

In some of the books you leave lying about we read that you have ideas of 'promoting rational autonomy'. But the arrangements you make in school don't seem to leave us any decisions to be rational and autonomous about and we can only get in the necessary practice off the premises . . .

Measure for measure

Earlier this year a Royal Society working party, set up to investigate the relevance of O-level physics and mathematics papers in the education of potential physicists and mathematicians, completed its report. The report was based on a detailed analysis of the questions set in 1972, 1973 and 1974 by several of the examining boards in England and Wales.

This bare outline, of course, begs a number of questions which the working party took into account – how, for example, *can* one judge the appropriateness of a syllabus for potential physicists and mathematicians, or can one really devise a syllabus that is suitable for those who will eventually take professional qualifications in these subjects and those who will not?

The working party found that most of the questions set in the physics papers were recall questions – that is, questions that require candidates to state a principle, define a law, or describe an experiment. Few questions set out to test their understanding of these principles, laws, or experiments. Even fewer required them to show an awareness of how these matters can be applied in practice.

The mathematics questions, rightly, tested the ability to perform routine mathematical techniques accurately and confidently, but few required any demonstration of the ability to apply these techniques in unfamiliar situations.

Physics and mathematics O-level questions tend, in other words, to reinforce the already clear separation of these subjects from the environment in which we all live and work.

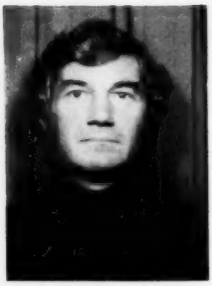
What the working party calls for is a change in attitude to these two subjects, in their teaching and their examining, so that they can be more directly related to the student's own environment and experience.

The report goes on to say:

> We seek, in essence, two separate changes:
> 1. In physics, we ask that in teaching scientific principles, teachers shall always ensure that the practical applications of those principles, in everyday modern life, in technology and in the home, be brought forcefully and meaningfully to the attention of the pupils. We ask, as a corollary to this, that the questions set in O-level physics papers should require, in appropriate circumstances, that candidates demonstrate that same knowledge of practical applications.
> 2. In mathematics, we ask that more attention be given to training the student to use his mathematical knowledge in relation to practical situations thus giving him an appreciation of the value of mathematics as a tool for scientists and technologists. We recognize that in doing this we are asking teachers of mathematics, who are themselves mathematicians with a high and proper regard for the importance of their subject in its own right, to sacrifice some of their purity, and to accept that for most of their pupils it will be but a handmaiden to another science.
>
> We accept that this may be distasteful to some mathematicians, but it is after all nothing more than a recognition of a truth that we are not responsible for fabricating. We suspect, however, that if mathematics were taught rather more as a useful ancillary tool, it might in its teaching hold a greater appeal for a majority and in time, by enhancing interest, not only lighten the teacher's task, but also stimulate other pupils to pursue mathematical studies.

Most concerned teachers of physics and mathematics would no doubt agree. Where they might very well disagree is over the best ways of translating these sentiments into any kind of reality.

So far, so good. There is one thing, however, the working party does not say. Physics and mathematics graduates who come into teaching are conditioned in their assumptions about the nature of their particular subject by the way they themselves were taught at university. They, naturally enough, bring these assumptions with them into the schools. If the emphasis in physics and mathematics teaching and physics and mathematics examining is wrong, as the working party suggests that it is, then perhaps a change of emphasis is required just as much in the universities as it is in the schools themselves.



Scottish education: a brief guide for the perplexed

NIGEL GRANT

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What are the essential differences between the English and Scottish systems of education?

There are many misconceptions abroad in England about Scottish education. Probably the most widespread is the failure to recognize that it exists. The habit of using the terms 'British' and 'English' as if they were synonymous dies hard, in spite of growing awareness in the discussions on devolution that things are not quite as simple as they once appeared. There still seems to be an extraordinary degree of misunderstanding in England about the non-English peoples of these islands, but there is always the chance that it will eventually be realized that the Scots, though British, are emphatically not English; it is even possible that more and more English, as they grow accustomed to being in the same organizations as other peoples (through the EEC, for example) will learn to stop feeling threatened or affronted by this. Determination not to be English does not mean that the Scots are anti-English, but that they are aware of having their own identity and distinctive institutions. Not that they are necessarily uncritical about these, but they do prefer to develop them in their own way instead of copying someone else. This is particularly true of education; closely related though the systems of the British Isles may be, there is still no such thing as a British educational system.

Less distinctive

Nor has there ever been; although some writers give the impression that Scottish practice is a deviation from the English norm, this is quite misleading. If anything, Scottish education has become *less* distinctive. From being completely independent it has, under the pressure of political union and other influences such as shared mass media and personal mobility, moved closer to the English pattern, particularly in the last hundred years. As Scots are rarely slow to point out, their system is the older-established. Without accepting the more extravagant claims of an effective national system dating from 1560 (John Knox in that year put forward ambitious plans, but for a long time they remained as plans only), one can still claim it as one of the oldest in the world. The idea at least of education as a public responsibility was planted early, and by the eighteenth century had grown sufficiently to produce something approaching a coherent national system; the like might be said for Prussia, the

Netherlands, and some New England colonies and Swiss cantons, but not for England. Not that antiquity is an unmixed blessing; continued existence is no guarantee of continuous development. Indeed, being ahead at one stage can encourage complacency and inhibit adaptability at another, as post-war German experience illustrates.

There are two further myths that enjoy a certain currency. The flattering one, drawing on and exaggerating the extent and prestige of academic learning in the nineteenth century, paints an impressive picture of high standards and the favouring of hard work and ability over social class. The patronizing one, based partly on misunderstanding the examination system and partly on sheer prejudice, portrays a system both repressive and ineffective, low on attainment and even lower on polish, whose products are, despite cramming and flagellation, inarticulate and uncouth. As is usual with myths, both of these have some grain of truth in them, but they are wild caricatures that hinder rather than help understanding. The 'lad o' pairts' and the crude boor are both real, but should not be taken as valid national stereotypes, attractive though this may be to those who like their picture of other peoples kept simple. It is essential to understand that Scotland, though a small country, is not a simple one; and that, although it is probably more like England than any other country, this is a long way from being identical, in education or anything else.

It is less easy to put one's finger on the differences than it might be with small nations or minority peoples elsewhere. Language is often a major determinant of identity, but in the Scottish case is rather peripheral. True, there is more awareness of Gaelic, there seems to be a revival of interest generally, and one of the regional authorities, *Comhairle nan Eilean* (Western Isles Council), has adopted a policy of complete bilingualism. But the great majority of Scots have for centuries spoken only English (of one form or another). Like many other things now thought of as typically Scottish, such as tartan, Gaelic is really specific to the Highlands and Isles. Population movements in the nineteenth century, notably large-scale eviction from the land, have made the population of Scotland more mixed than at any time in history, so that many Lowlanders have taken up things Highland as a focus for a generally Scottish identity, even in some cases taking the trouble to learn the tongue (which their ancestors had often actively suppressed). Nevertheless, it is still the concern of a small minority, and affects education only in certain areas. Scotland's distinguishing features must be sought elsewhere.

Distinguishing features

One of these is the separate administrative and organizational structure, though at first sight the differences are not enormous. Administratively, Scottish education – with the crucial exception of the universities – is the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Scotland, not of the Secretary of State for Education and Science.

(Having responsibility for several areas, the Scottish Secretary has under him, in effect, several departments. The Scottish Education Department, or SED, is inevitably described by some as a backward version of the DES; just as inevitably, the Scots put it the other way round.) All relevant legislation, as yet, comes from the same source as the English system, but usually has to be separately framed, Scots law having been exempted from assimilation by the Act of Union of 1707. This division has preserved certain differences, while eventual control by a single legislative has set a limit to their extent. For example, there was a period when Scotland had *ad hoc* local school boards, rather like the United States, but was long ago brought into line with England when local government authorities were put in charge of school provision. But even in this the two countries are not identical; differences in local government structure have seen to that. Therefore in Scotland it is the twelve regions (one of them containing half the country's population), not the districts (the successors, very roughly, of the counties), which are charged with the provision of primary, secondary and further education.

Higher education does not come under the local authorities, except for certain CNAA courses in further education colleges. There are no polytechnics (though two colleges, in Aberdeen and Paisley, are similar in function). Instead, there are colleges of art, domestic science, technology, agriculture, etc., known as central institutions; and they, like the colleges of education, are not part of the local authority system at all. Through their governing bodies, part elected and part appointed, they are responsible to the Scottish Secretary through the SED.

In one sense, this gives the central authority more power in Scotland, though there have been some trends in the other direction. One was the extraordinary decision in the 1960s to attach the University Grants Committee (UGC), with responsibility for all *British* universities, to the *English* Secretary of State, compounded by the more recent decision to keep things that way, even in the event of Scottish legislative control over the rest of the system. More positively, there has been the establishment of bodies, unparalleled in England, which have removed some functions from the Secretary of State's control without putting them under local government. One of these, the General Teaching Council (GTC) for Scotland, determines the pattern of teaching qualifications and decides whether individuals, wherever they come from, fulfil the necessary conditions (to the annoyance of many immigrants from England, who are subjected to as close a scrutiny as those from any other country; registration with the GTC is a necessary condition for teaching in Scotland). The Council has been accused of falling in too readily with SED policy; but although some of its members are nominated by the Secretary of State, regional councils and universities, the majority are directly elected by the teaching profession. Similarly, the Scottish Examination Board has taken over from the SED the administration of the Scottish Certificate of Education which, unlike the GCE, is set and marked for the entire country.

Voices are frequently raised to complain that the influence of the SED (or, alternatively, of the universities) is excessive; but, again, the remedy is potentially at least in the hands of teachers themselves.

Technically, then, decision-making in Scottish education has become more diffuse over the last decade or two. In practice, however, the system has remained unsurprisingly close-knit. This has much to do with the size of the country; the number of people actively involved in running the system is much smaller than in England. Almost any educational meeting, drawing in individuals from teachers' organizations, universities and colleges, central or local government, administration or research, is certain to contain a large proportion of people already well-known to each other. Some English observers assume that this must lead to cosy unanimity or parochial isolationism. One can only assume that they have never attended any such meetings.

The schools

What, then, of the schools themselves? One important difference is the greater strength of the public system ('public school' in Scotland means a public school, not a private one). The independent sector, whatever impression may be gained in Edinburgh (where for historical reasons much too complex to be gone into here there is an unusually thick cluster of fee-paying schools), is much weaker than in England, and accounts for barely 2 per cent of the school population. This is rising now with the decision of the grant-aided schools (not quite the same thing as English direct-grant schools) to go independent. Scottish education is no more free of shibboleths than English; but these (again, Edinburgh largely excepted) tend to concentrate on qualifications rather than the name of the school where they were obtained.

By international standards, the differences between Scottish and English primary schools are not great, largely because, with the Welsh and the Irish, they are rather eccentric in starting at 5 and providing a self-contained pre-secondary stage up to the beginning of adolescence. From the closer view, the differences are greater. Scottish primary schools are rarely divided into nursery and junior departments, let alone separate schools. Perhaps for this reason, the atmosphere is still more formal throughout, though this has been changing (unevenly, to be sure) in the last decade or so. Attempts have been made to explain this formality as a hangover from the primary school's former function as a preparation for secondary selection, pointing out that formality has dwindled as comprehensive reorganization has removed this particular hurdle. This is not very convincing, however; even in its heyday, selection never loomed nearly as large as in England. One of its side-effects there, streaming from about the age of 7, was virtually unknown in Scotland.

Secondary schooling begins at 12, not 11, and is overwhelmingly comprehensive. Scottish secondary schools, even in the days of the

'12-plus', were always much more open than their English counterparts. By 1950, about 35 per cent of the age-group were entering senior secondary schools (considerably more in some areas) as against about 19 per cent entering grammar schools in the rest of Britain. The remainder went to junior secondary schools, roughly the equivalent of the secondary moderns; there were no technical secondary schools. The equivalence is only approximate, of course; lacking the range of many secondary moderns, hardly any of the junior secondary schools could ever mount certificate courses, which may have highlighted their second-class status. Certainly, the transition to comprehensive organization was relatively smooth (except in certain cases in Edinburgh and Glasgow), even though the pressure on selective secondary school places, which provided much of the political muscle for comprehensivization in England, was not conspicuous in Scotland. At any rate, the changeover was much quicker. By 1973, about 45 per cent of all secondary pupils in England and Wales were in comprehensive schools, while in Scotland the figure was 75 per cent, plus a further 12 per cent in partly reorganized schools. Nor is the odd anomaly, common in England, of grammar and comprehensive schools competing in the same area to be found in the public sector in Scotland.

Examination system

The content of secondary schooling can best be explained by outlining the examination system, since this is an effective moulder of the curriculum in Scotland as anywhere else, even though only a minority take the examinations. Up to the end of the fourth year (about age 16) the pattern is not unlike the English. The Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE) O grade is roughly equivalent to the O-level of the GCE, taken over a similarly broad field. (Rather more attempt it, proportionally, as there is no CSE in Scotland.) At this stage, the Scottish curriculum is if anything slightly narrower, due to the channelling of potential candidates into appropriate courses at the end of the second year (age 14), thus forcing some choices (for example, history *or* geography *or* modern studies) that would not normally be made so early in England. On the other hand, there is less division of subjects – English, for example, counts as one – so that the difference is not great. It increases markedly beyond this point, however. Whereas English pupils going on to the next stage will normally concentrate on two or three subjects (usually related) for A-level, the equivalent group in Scotland will take four, five or even six subjects at Higher grade. Although there has been a tendency to concentrate more and more of these in the same area (languages, say, or sciences), they will normally include at least English, a language, and a mathematical or science subject. Highers may be taken in the fifth year, the sixth, or spread over both. Not surprisingly, the standard attained in any one subject will usually be lower than that required for A-level; it is this that has convinced some academics, concerned with single-subject competence only, that Scottish standards *as a whole* are lower.

There has been a good deal of pressure, allegedly from the universities, to introduce more specialization in Scottish schools. In 1966, the Certificate of Sixth Year Studies (CSYS) was introduced, not to replace Highers but to supplement them, the idea being that abler pupils would get their Highers out of the way in the fifth year, then take a maximum of three subjects in the CSYS to provide greater depth. To make sure that the Highers were not ousted, it was declared that the certificate should not be used like an A-level as a criterion for university entrance – easy to declare, impossible to enforce, as admission practices increasingly show. In effect, specialization has been creeping in, and the Scottish tradition of a broad-based education is, if not quite as dead as many commentators suggest, certainly a shadow of its former self. This has a particular irony when it is slowly being realized that the Scottish generalist pattern is more in line than the English with European and indeed international practice, and when many in England, worried about the effects of over-specialization, have been looking with interest at Scottish generalism, just when there is so little of it left.

Higher education

The traditions of openness and generalism appear in higher education also, though again as struggling remnants. Scotland still has more university places in relation to population than England, and a higher proportion of university entrants from working-class families. Too much should not be made of this, however; the universities dominate higher education much more in Scotland than in England, having roughly 60 per cent of the total student body, compared with 40 per cent in England. (There are also many English students in Scottish universities, making up roughly 20 per cent of the total.) But it does mean that the universities are rather broader in their function than in England, and are less likely to be regarded as élitist institutions by the population at large. Too much, though, should not be read into this either; the proportion of working-class students has actually decreased, probably as a result of increased pressure on places from middle-class girls.

The generalist pattern really began to decline when the Scottish universities introduced English-style honours degrees towards the end of the nineteenth century. Some of it remains; about half the students in arts and social sciences still take 'ordinary' degrees. These are not 'failed honours' but general degrees with a spread of six or seven courses (two of these being second-year courses to provide some depth as well) taken over three years. In honours courses, the common pattern is still two years of relatively general study (but including the intended honours subject) followed by two years of specialization, both to provide a broader base and to keep the options open longer. But the pressure against generalism is strong; the 'ordinary' degree, once commonly taken from choice, has increasingly become a refuge for those not admitted to honours

as more career structures have come to favour honours graduates. The general basis of the honours degree is also being eroded as more departments turn to selecting honours students at the end of the first year, even occasionally at the beginning. The decision to divide the second class of honours along English lines may be regarded as a straw in the same wind. Generalism may not be dead yet, but it is ailing as pressures build up to conform to an allegedly 'British' pattern.

Teacher training

Other higher institutions have their differences too, notably the colleges of education, arising out of the different structure of the teaching profession. Secondary teaching has been an all-graduate profession, with compulsory training, since early in the present century. Three-year college diplomas qualify only for primary teaching. Even in the days of selection, *all* secondary teachers had to have a degree (or equivalent in subjects like art, music, home-craft or physical education). Teacher training is the province of the colleges for all graduates; university departments, with the single exception of Stirling (which follows an essentially American pattern) do not train teachers at all, but are concerned with further degrees, research and, in collaboration with the colleges, the BEd degree (four years for ordinary, five for honours). Most of the colleges are large by English standards; this, together with their responsibility for graduate training, has given them a strength generally lacked by their southern counterparts. Whether this will enable them to resist the double crisis of falling birthrate and even more obvious falling of the money supply remains to be seen. At the time of writing, though there are forebodings in plenty, no Scottish college of education has yet been closed.

Before leaving the formal system, some mention should be made of the religious issue, which has worked out more simply than in England. The Scottish system was the creation of the Church, in organization and ethos, though the 'Disruption', which produced the Free Kirk, complicated the system so much during the nineteenth century as to make transfer to the secular authorities relatively straightforward. By the time this happened, the Catholic population had grown substantially (largely through Irish immigration). The eventual settlement brought the Catholic schools completely into the public system on exactly the same terms as any other, except that the hierarchy control religious teaching and have a say in staffing (though a large proportion, and often a majority, of the teachers are not Catholics). There are, of course, areas of controversy, with some voices raised in favour of integration and vigorous resistance to the idea from the Church. By and large, however, the Scottish system has escaped the convulsions and complexities of, say, England or France. Religious antagonisms do exist, but perhaps there is something in the saying that the Scots work them off at football matches.

The whole system

Looking over the system as a whole, it can be seen that some of the differences are of detail, others quite substantial, and that both have long been subjected to strong pressures to assimilate to English modes. The process has not always been deliberate, and certainly not systematic. A common career structure in higher education, the effective centralization of mass media and most publishing, the frequent prospect of having to emigrate for employment or advancement, and thus the need to acquire qualifications that are acceptable (even comprehensible) elsewhere – these are only a few of the factors in the random anglicization of Scottish education up to the present. Even with the present degree of administrative devolution, the effective control of the system lies outside the country; this, at least, is one thing that devolution may correct, though the Government's determination so far to keep the universities (the keystone of the system) under Westminster control is likely to make effective national planning of education in Scotland next to impossible.

There are many in England who seem quite baffled that the Scots should want to maintain a separate system anyway, particularly if other factors encourage progressive assimilation. Would it not be more logical to let events take their course? Is it not backward-looking parochialism to insist on preserving such differences in the era of jet travel and television? Is not this whole devolution business, in education or anything else, a destructive attempt to put the clock back?

It depends, of course, on where one is standing. To anyone, Scots or English, whose vision ends at the Channel or the North Sea, it might well seem so. But to many in Scotland, able to see both Scotland and the wider world outside the UK, it is the 'unionist' view that seems narrow and outdated. Commonwealth links, membership of the EEC, and the longstanding transatlantic connexion, make it impossible to avoid taking an international view sooner or later. No educational system can afford to cut itself off from others; but, although the need for harmonization within, for example, the EEC, is officially recognized, no one expects the Danish system to assimilate to the German, the Italian to the French, or the English to any. The reactions of the English academics and officials to European proposals have made it abundantly clear that they are determined to retain their identity, while finding ways of fruitful collaboration and exchange of ideas. England, then, seems to have settled for a pluralist rather than a unitary approach to education in the international context, working with others but remaining herself. Few Scots would expect any other reaction; but it cuts both ways. If increasing assimilation into ever-larger units is somehow laudable, there is no reason why the English should be exempt; but if educational autonomy and identity are to be preserved and developed even in multi-national complexes like the European Community, there is no reason why this should not apply to Scotland and Wales within a multi-national complex

like Great Britain. Of course Scotland will maintain close educational links with England, but will do so *as Scotland,* not as a provincial variant of the English system. There are other countries to develop links with too; nothing provincializes a system so much as being closely bound up with one of the exclusion of all others. One reason why so many Scots harp on the traditional virtues, real or fancied, or their educational system is an understandable resistance to being swamped by someone else's; autonomy can make it more forward-looking and open-minded, not less.

Essentially, devolution and internationalization are aspects of the same process. In education, as in other areas of life, this is something that *all* the peoples that share these islands will have to learn to live with in mutual respect. If they do not, the prospects for cooperation and understanding in the wider world are far from encouraging.

Trends 1976/4

Innovation in a cold climate

JAMES PORTER

Principal, Bulmershe College of Higher Education

Bulmershe College of Higher Education (previously the Berkshire College of Education) was one of the first two institutions to offer the Diploma of Higher Education under the auspices of the Council for National Academic Awards. Twenty-five students started the programme in September 1974, and the first holders of diplomas emerged at the end of last summer term. This article describes the objectives of the programme, its content, and the outcome for the students. It suggests what the Dip HE's prospects might be.

Following the publication of the James Report* early in 1972, Bulmershe College firmly set its sights upon a major diversification of its work in terms of a much wider range of professional training, both at the initial and in-service levels, and on introducing courses that would broaden educational opportunity and at the same time strengthen 'aptitudes and skills which might be put to vocational use'.† It is important to note that the College had wished to diversify for a number of years, and warmly welcomed the end of the monotechnic system and the opportunity to contribute on a much broader front.

The Dip HE, therefore, formed part of a general strategy which included the concentration of initial training into undergraduate and postgraduate courses, the major growth of in-service training and, in particular, a much more professional in-service degree and

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* *Teacher Education and Training.* London: HMSO, 1972.

† From the College's *Initial Proposal to the Council for National Academic Awards for a Diploma of Higher Education,* February 1974.

the growth of school-based support, the assumption of responsibility for the training of community, youth, and social workers, and the extension of undergraduate studies leading to the BA. At the time of writing, all developments have been completed or are in their final stages of validation.

The Dip HE was the College's first probe into diversification and was firmly linked to proposals for the BA honours degree which was being prepared at the same time. Indeed, the strategy in 1974, which had been successfully deployed for the BEd honours degree and was being proposed for the BA, was of a two-year higher education programme. This programme was coherent and valuable for those who wished to terminate at the end of two years with a Dip HE but of a standard equivalent to the first two years of a degree programme and suitable for those who wished to go on to complete either a BA or a BEd. The critical element in the design of the two-year course was the opportunity it offered for students to choose two major studies (known as focuses) and other options from a much longer list of minor studies.

Thus, students could genuinely decide on a programme which reflected their own interests and capabilities on the one hand, and the requirements of subsequent degree study or professional training on the other. In each of the two years, the student had to pursue nine units of study; each focus of study comprised three linked units. Thus the student's study of his two major fields occupied two-thirds of his total programme. The other part of the programme comprised three single units of study in each year. These could be deployed by the student to supplement either of his major courses (supplementary courses) or to follow courses outside the major fields of study (complementary courses).

Students who wished to proceed without doing additional courses or without the loss of any time to the BEd had to fulfil certain requirements. It was also anticipated that certain requirements would be built into the design of the new BA degree.

The students

Nearly all of the twenty-five students who began in September 1974, had a minimum of two A-level passes and most were under 21: all were therefore formally qualified in terms of the White Paper to go on to higher education. The students chose across a fairly wide range of courses and pursued them alongside undergraduates reading for the BEd honours degree. All those who completed the course (twenty-one out of twenty-five) enjoyed it and felt that they had gained a great deal from the programme. Undoubtedly the fact that they were the first group contributed somewhat to their sense of excitement and interest.

The outcome

Of the twenty-one who remained with the programme, eight transferred to the BEd degree: in some cases this included doing an additional bridging course to ensure that they had covered the

appropriate programme in educational studies and had pursued the appropriate preparatory professional induction. One student took the 1975/76 year off to go to Africa but has now returned to complete the second year for the Dip HE. The remaining students qualified for their diplomas. Six of the students decided to go on to further academic study. Of these, three have been accepted on programmes – two in polytechnics with the loss of one year on the degree course, and one on a postgraduate secretarial course – one has transferred to a BEd in another college, and two more are still negotiating the possibility of being admitted to the third year of a degree programme. One student has left to work with the Department of Aboriginal Affairs in Australia; another has gone through the graduate entry into the management training programme at British Home Stores; one is working as a technician in a film department; another is working with a publisher; and the three remaining students are still seeking employment at the time of writing; one of them is likely to get into local radio (again linked with Dip HE work).

Links with BA

The major problem during the first two years of the Dip HE programme was the fact that the College did not establish the Dip HE as the base for its new BA course. The CNAA validating group for the BA thought that the College should limit the range of studies at honours degree level and should reconsider the structure of its course so that students could spend more time in one major area of study. This led to the design of a BA course which, although it covers some of the fields offered in the Dip HE, does not overlap sufficiently to be a genuinely related programme. In any case, the course was not validated in time to enable the first Dip HE students to transfer so that the main internal transfer at the College was on to the BEd. Although the lack of opportunity to continue smoothly into the third year of a BA was a considerable disappointment for some students, the range of the diploma programme would have been substantially limited if it had merely been Part I of what will now be a much more restricted offering in the BA programme.

Real problems

However, the failure of one of the Dip HE's major strategic elements, namely to act as a base for all undergraduate programmes, has created real problems at Bulmershe and in other colleges. It has also made it difficult to achieve one of the Government's major intentions: that the Dip HE should 'be a critical element in achieving greater flexibility in higher education'.* The problem has been particularly acute in colleges validated by the CNAA whereas universities have found it much more acceptable to see the Dip HE as a stage or route to a degree award. From a degree validation point of view it would certainly have been better to have

* *'Education: A Framework for Expansion'*. 1972 White Paper. Cmnd 5174, paragraph 111.

designed the degrees and then related the diploma to them, rather than the other way about. However, this is the first major dilemma of the Dip HE. If all diplomas are shaped to fit into three or four-year degree courses, the hope that there will be a new 'range of intellectually demanding two-year courses' will not be realized, nor will the gap the Government had identified be filled.

On the other hand, the 'hard currency' in Academia is the first degree. Many students, particularly those just leaving school, want to feel that their courses can terminate in a degree award without the loss of time. Local authorities also find it difficult to understand why students taking a course which demands the same qualifications as for degree entry and which is of an equal standard to the first two years of a degree should actually need an additional year of grant to complete a degree. If the Dip HE is merely to be Part I of existing degrees, it will mean that degrees will increasingly be offered on a two-part pattern, and that the diploma will be an exit qualification, have no integrity of its own as an award, and be unlikely to introduce any element of innovation into British higher education. It would not provide opportunities in higher education which do not at present exist for a wider range of students, nor would it enable the new institutes and colleges of higher education to offer a fresh dimension out of their own work in the field of teacher education. Perhaps even more seriously, the diploma will not earn currency in the world of work nor be regarded by employers and others as a significant award and a guarantee that students have had a personally extending and genuinely educative experience after leaving school.

Development of a new higher education award

There are obviously different ways of confronting this dilemma. At the institutional level – at least in terms of Bulmershe College – it has been decided that the present wide-ranging and undoubtedly interesting and challenging programme should only be offered for one more year – 1977. Currently the College is preparing proposals for a new diploma from which it hopes to develop genuine opportunities for transfer into college programmes leading to professional and academic awards. It also hopes to establish a network of relationships with other institutions which will take diploma students on to the third year of their own existing degree courses, and to provide much more specific vocational opportunities within the diploma programme itself. Many of the younger students will probably want to take the more academic routes which would enable them to hold open personal options for the first year of their course but then to transfer at the end of that time into an undergraduate programme or to decide to terminate after one further year with the diploma.

There has, however, been a growing interest in the diploma from mature students who are certainly less obsessed with the conventional degree link. They seem particularly interested in the opportunities it offers for a new approach to personal education, with its

emphasis on choice, independent study, and the creative arts. Thus, because of the likely development of the diploma as part of *éducation permanente,* the College has been delighted by the response of the Open University which uses the College as a major study centre. Discussions have been held both with the Open University and with the CNAA and early in 1977 it is confidently expected that the Senate of the Open University and the Academic Board at Bulmershe will agree to a proposal that the Dip HE should be interchangeable with OU courses. The University will accept successful Dip HE students as having had the equivalent of four OU degree credits and the College will give maximum transfer opportunities to Open University students. The College may also offer courses for Open University students as part of their OU degree.

In the redesign of the diploma, attention will also be paid to the potential relationship between the Dip HE and training for community and youth work and for social work. These courses were not on offer at the College when the original diploma was proposed, and any opportunity for a built-in relationship with such professional training and with a professional degree route should be seized. Again, the professional courses for community, youth, and social work draw particularly upon mature students. The major effect of the developments within the College and the negotiations with the CNAA has been to shift the College from its aim of integrating all its awards through providing a common two-year base towards a strategy of coordinating and relating five programmes – the BEd, BA, Dip HE, PGCE and the Certificates of Qualification in Community, Youth, and Social Work. Each programme will have its own integrity and coherence, but at the same time provide options relevant to more than one programme and so enable the student to defer final choice. In such a strategy the Dip HE will continue to be of vital signifiance.

The national scene

Nationally the diploma has survived the first two critical years, and there now seem very real prospects of considerable development. The next year is, however, going to be critical for its future. As was clearly seen by the working party which laid down guidelines for the Dip HE in 1973, the diploma must be accepted by the higher education institutions themselves if it is to be regarded favourably by those outside their walls. In this context, the recent CNAA initiative in encouraging institutions to accept students with appropriate diplomas on to degree courses without loss of time, is of particular importance. The Council has vested this responsibility in the institutions and, while colleges will obviously wish to ensure that the students have a reasonable chance of success in the third year of the degree studies, it is hoped that they will not require identity of content with the first two years of the degree. If they do, concepts of transfer and flexibility will be completely nullified.

If more diploma programmes concentrate on educational processes and on giving students the capacity to learn for themselves,

the risks accompanying transfer may well be lessened. Colleges with substantial diploma programmes certainly have a need for a well-developed and experienced guidance service, both in relation to transfers within institutions and in advising those who wish to enter employment. Also of critical significance over the next year is the extent to which institutions can propose genuinely innovatory and attractive programmes which are not simply mirrors of the first part of existing degree courses. There is evidence that a number of institutions have seen the diploma as an opportunity to consider radical alternatives in higher education, as illustrated, for example, by the Dip HE by independent study at North East London Polytechnic. A number of colleges, including those at Wolverhampton and Bradford, are developing interesting programmes, and others are breaking new ground with 'free-standing' Dip HEs.

The Dip HE group of the CNAA is, of course, encouraging a variety of diplomas and many will appropriately be built into existing degrees or into proposed degrees. These can still give the student a coherent and effective course of higher education and the opportunity to leave with a qualification after two years. However, the crisis in the country's economic affairs, the far-reaching implications of the falling birthrate, and the critical shifts in social and political attitudes during the 1970s, certainly spell out the need for more flexible and responsible higher education programmes. The Council is encouraging institutions to respond to the new situation through more relevant and challenging programmes in answer to the 1972 White Paper's hope that 'a growing number of students should be given more help in acquiring – and discovering how to apply – knowledge and skills related more directly to the decisions that will face them in their careers and in the world of personal and social action'. If the diploma encourages a number of institutions, including the ex-colleges of education, to give reality to the rhetoric of the White Paper, it will have served an important purpose. It may encourage genuine growth in the development of the creative arts and of a new approach to education through experience.

Critical to its success, however, is the abandonment of the ancient view that no one has received a 'proper' higher education unless he has been carefully baked in the academic oven for at least three years. In further education there has been a wide experience of the effectiveness of courses of many different lengths, and for many students it is clear that the two years' full-time education offered by the diploma provide an acceptable stage in what we should increasingly accept as being one particular part of a continuing process of the education of any citizen. The acceptance of such a view puts the student firmly in the centre of the picture, and unfortunately for some validators and some colleges that is still a novel experience.

Sixth formers and higher education

MICHAEL RICHARDS

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What factors can influence a student's decision to go on to higher education? Does he always receive adequate guidance in making his choice of course and institution?

Most of us in education are aware of the paradoxical and somewhat absurd situation whereby there are regularly hundreds of unfilled places in higher education and an overall demand for higher education from suitably qualified applicants that could easily fill them. Equally, in this situation, we cannot but be concerned that a high proportion of students who are in higher education find themselves on courses that are simply not what they wanted. In short, specific consumer demand does not coincide with supply.

There are a number of reasons for this but one which receives little attention is that those in schools and in further education engaged in 'promoting' candidates, and those in higher education seeking to recruit and select them, do not fully understand when, how, or why an individual decides to enter higher education. We do not really know why a particular course or institution was chosen, what factors largely influenced that decision, or indeed when the decision was taken. It is not surprising, therefore, that in this climate of uncertainty, mismatching of students to courses and unsatisfied demand coexist.

In 1973-74, I attempted to find answers to these kinds of questions. I collected data from a random sample of 200 upper sixth formers about their proposed choice of activity after leaving school and the factors currently influencing that decision. I did this by means of questionnaires, attitude scales and interviews. Table 1 shows the projected and actual choice of the sample during the academic year.

Although plans are changing and being reformulated at all points along the time scale, certain trends are however clearly discernible. While university aspirants remain the largest total proportion of the sample throughout, failure by both sexes to achieve sufficiently good grades at A-level took its toll of actual entrants to university. There was a steady reduction during the year in the numbers preferring a college of education, especially among girls, and a growing rejection of no higher education (see Table 1), this time mainly among boys. These trends contrast with an increasing preference by both boys and girls for a polytechnic.

Influences affecting choice

While failure to meet A-level requirements is one part of the explanation for some university aspirants not reaching their goal, anticipated or actual A-level results alone do not account for the other preference patterns seen to be developing in Table 1. Alternative explanations for these can be gleaned from an examination of those factors which over the year sixth formers rated as having the greatest influence on the type of higher education they were eventually to choose.

There are clearly similarities between the kinds of factors influencing both college of education and university entrants, the most prominent being teachers, peer groups of various kinds, the prospectus and the interview. The university entrant places greater emphasis than his college of education counterpart on school examination results, reflecting the more specific academic demands of most university departments. The general picture is however one of the established links, where teachers, through their experience of college of education and university, consciously or subconsciously influence pupils to take the same paths. The colleges and universities themselves back up this 'flow of information' in a more formal way through the prospectus and the interview.

Polytechnic entrant

The case of the polytechnic entrant differs from this pattern in a number of important ways. Table 1 suggests that choosing a polytechnic is rather a last minute affair, and while it is true that some polytechnic entrants would have gone to a university had their A-level grades been good enough, this factor alone is not responsible for the lemming-like rush into the polytechnic. School-based influences are noticeably absent from the polytechnic column in Table 2, and polytechnic-based factors virtually sweep the board. The consistently highly rated polytechnic interview for example, looms large in the process because it provides for the first time first-hand information about the polytechnic course which most teachers cannot give. Moreover it sets up interaction with significant others in the polytechnic, enabling the sixth former to see for himself the course and institution, and hence his possible role within it. Thus while the process of choosing a college of education is not unlike that of choosing a university, the decision to go to a polytechnic is arrived at in a rather different way.

If attention were paid to these variations when publicity and recruiting campaigns were being drawn up, a more effective use of new and existing channels of communication between college and potential student could be achieved. This, I believe, would help to combat the situation of able and qualified applicants failing to reach higher education and guard against some of the dissatisfactions and disappointments that many students in higher education undoubtedly experience.

TABLE 1 — Choice of higher education for 1974

Preference for higher education	*Sixth formers' predicted choice*												*Actual choice*		
	September 1973			December 1973			February 1974			June 1974			September 1974		
	Total %	Boys %	Girls %	Total %	Boys %	Girls %	Total %	Boys %	Girls %	Total %	Boys %	Girls %	Total %	Boys %	Girls %
University	45	52	38	43·5	51	36	42	51	33	45	52	38	38	47	29
College of education	26·5	10	43	22	7	37	20	8	32	15	4	26	18·5	7	30
Polytechnic	8·5	14	3	16·5	21	12	23	29	17	25	31	19	26	33	19
No higher education	20	24	16	18	21	15	15	16	14	15	13	17	17·5	13	22
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 2 – Major influences in rank order operating on entrants to:

College of education	University	Polytechnic
Main subject teachers	Main subject teachers	Polytechnic interview
Friends at school	Trial A-level exam results	Polytechnic prospectus
College of education prospectus	University prospectus	Visits by polytechnic representatives to school
Head teacher	University interview	Friends at a polytechnic
Friends at college of education	Friends at school	Visits to polytechnics
Form teachers	Friends at university	Main subject teachers
Trial A-level exam results	Head teacher	Trial A-level exam results
College of education	GCE O-level results	

Persistent unjustified absence from school*

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What is the extent of persistent absenteeism from school and why does it happen? Sheffield Education Department set out in 1973 to find answers to these and some other related questions.

In spite of the widespread concern about school attendance both within and outside the teaching profession, we know very little about the extent of persistent unjustified absence; we know equally little about the reasons for it. Several studies have investigated absenteeism. The Plowden Report, for instance, found the overall average percentage of attendance in primary schools in 1964-65 was about 93. Other studies have shown the percentage in secondary schools to be about the same for boys and rather less for girls. The majority of absences are due to illness, but, according to Plowden, primary school teachers thought that 4 per cent of children absent at any one time ought to have been in school. In 1974, a nationwide DES survey of attendance on one day in January revealed that 10 per cent of all pupils aged 12 or over were absent, and of these 2 per cent were thought to be absent without legitimate reason. Both in respect of absence and of unjustified absence, the highest percentage was among adolescents aged 15 on 31 August 1974 (14 per cent and 5 per cent). Maurice Tyerman† pointed out that more children were kept from school than played truant; prosecutions for the former offence were five times as common as for the latter. None of these figures, however, tells us how many of the children were absent persistently. To take an extreme example, an average attendance rate of 93 per cent could indicate that 7 per cent of the pupils are permanent absentees, or that every pupil in the school has missed one or two sessions throughout the term.

Lacking more adequate information it is not surprising that loose talk and folklore proliferate. Children whose absence from school is not due to illness are still, despite Tyerman's work, often referred to indiscriminately as truants. A few have had the label 'school phobia' attached to them by psychologists or psychiatrists, with the implication that they require treatment of a quasi-medical nature. Little attention has been given to the other possible reasons for unjustified absence from school. People opposed to the idea of comprehensive schools often believe that large schools cause – or at the very

* The views expressed in this article are the author's own and do not necessarily represent those of the Sheffield Education Department.

† See *Truancy*. University of London Press: 1968.

least contribute to – attendance and behaviour problems. With only a little more evidence the same beliefs apply to the impoverished, run-down areas of large cities. If both these view are true (and we should remember that no opinion is made false by the fact that it has passed into folklore), we would expect large schools in deprived areas to have the highest absentee rates and the highest incidence of exclusion for unmanageable behaviour. We would also expect absentee rates to rise dramatically among children in their first year at secondary school. We might further expect a disproportionate number of boys in every age range. The first Sheffield survey of persistent absenteeism set out to answer these questions; the subsequent surveys are enabling us to study trends in different areas of the city and in different age ranges, and hence to plan the most efficient use of resources to help the schools and the families concerned.

Planning the surveys

In the autumn of 1973, Sheffield Education Department set up a working party under the chairmanship of a senior assistant education officer to consider the adequacy of existing facilities for problem children. It quickly became apparent that our many ideas and theories about the causes and cures for problem behaviour were more often based on personal anecdote than on solid evidence. This was seen most clearly in the case of children whose problem (or whose teachers' problem) was their persistent absence. Discussion with head teachers, year tutors in secondary schools, education welfare officers, advisers, psychologists and education officers revealed particular concern about persistent absentees. No one knew the size of the problem; estimates on the number of children in the city missing over 50 per cent of their education in one term without good reason ranged from less than 70 to around 2,000. There was general agreement though that large schools contributed to absenteeism; there was also general agreement about the difficulties in motivating the persistent absentee. His absences caused him to be educationally backward and socially poorly adjusted; on return to school he could hardly fail to notice, and be affected by, his poor attainments and lack of friends; a vicious circle could all too easily become established.

In the survey which resulted from these discussions, head teachers provided details of all children who had missed more than 50 per cent of possible attendances in the first six weeks of the 1973 autumn term. In the 1974 survey, head teachers listed children who had missed 50 per cent of their education in the whole of the autumn term (fourteen weeks). The returns were collected by the education welfare service and the officer who knew each family stated the main reason for the child's absence. Children whose absence was mainly caused by illness were not included in any of the results.

Results

Table 1 shows the number of absentees in each age group, with the percentage of the total on roll of that age group in brackets.

The 1974 survey contained six more schools than in 1973, due to local government reorganization and to the three Roman Catholic comprehensive schools not being included in the earlier survey. In addition, the criterion for inclusion (50 per cent absence in the whole term rather than in the first half) was stricter in 1974. Table 2 shows the education welfare officers' reasons for the absences. Other studies have suggested that truancy (absence without the parents' knowledge or consent), and the psychiatric category of school phobia together account for less than 15 per cent of all unjustified absences. We therefore included five further categories, giving a total of seven. The officers concerned then stated which one of these seven categories accounted for the greatest part of each child's absence.

TABLE 1 – Number of persistent absentees

(Figures do not include children whose absence was caused solely by organic illness)

	1973 (30 secondary school catchment areas) first 6 weeks of autumn term		1974 (36 secondary school catchment areas) whole of autumn term (14 weeks)	
	No	(Per cent)	No	(Per cent)
Reception class, first and infant schools	24	(0.6)	11	(0.4)
First and infant schools, year 2	40	(0.5)	17	(0.2)
First and infant schools, year 3	18	(0.2)	24	(0.3)
First schools, year 4 and junior schools, year 1	25	(0.3)	21	(0.2)
Middle schools, year 1 and junior schools, year 2	26	(0.3)	22	(0.2)
Middle schools, year 2 and junior schools, year 3	33	(0.4)	11	(0.1)
Middle schools, year 3 and junior schools, year 4	30	(0.4)	30	(0.3)
Middle schools, year 4	37	(1.0)	15	(0.4)
Primary schools total	233	(0.4)	151	(0.3) (139)*
Secondary schools, year 1	15	(0.5)	21	(0.4)
Secondary schools, year 2	89	(1.3)	74	(0.8)
Secondary schools, year 3	91	(1.4)	137	(1.7)
Secondary schools, year 4	154	(2.3)	138	(1.8)
Secondary schools, year 5	290	(4.4)	302	(3.9)
Secondary schools total	639	(2.1)	4672†	(1.8) (598)*

* Total from the 30 schools in the 1973 survey.

† These figures include 10 children from one school which has had to be omitted from the rest of the results.

An interesting result is that the persistent absentee rate shows no real change between the ages of 5 and 12, though it rises steeply subsequently. This raises the question whether transfer to a larger secondary school is *per se* a cause of increased absenteeism. As Sheffield is in the process of reorganizing infant and junior schools into first and middle schools, with transfer at the ages of 8 and 12 instead of 7 and 11 the results provide a clue to this question. Contrary to general expectation, there were no more absentees among children in year one of secondary school than among their exact contemporaries in year four of middle school.

In the 1974 survey we also looked at the boy/girl ratio; in middle schools (ages 8 to 12) there was a very slight excess of boys, but in every other age range we found the reverse. However the differences were too small to draw firm conclusions; all we can say is that girls are at least as likely to be absent without good reason as boys.

Table 2 shows that truancy, defined as being absent from school without the parents' knowledge or consent, accounted for a negligible proportion of the primary school children; in secondary schools the proportion was greater, but was still barely 15 per cent of all unjustified absentees. This finding lends no support to those who think education welfare officers should be scouring the highways and by-ways to bring truants back to school; rather it suggests that the reasons for persistent poor attendance lie primarily in attitudes in the school and the home.

TABLE 2 – Reasons for persistent absenteeism (excluding prolonged organic illness)

	Primary schools Per cent		*Secondary schools* Per cent	
	1974	1973	1974	1973
With parents' knowledge, consent and approval.	19·2	24·2	15·4	24·3
Socio-medical reasons – child is excluded from school for reasons such as infestation, scabies, etc.	6·6	10·5	3·0	2·7
'School phobia'. Non-attendance is associated with severe relationship difficulties in the home.	4·0	1·2	3·5	4·2
Parents unable or unwilling to insist on return – child is at home with parents' knowledge but not with their active consent.	18·6	16·1	31·3	26·0
Truancy – child is absent without parents' knowledge or consent.	2·0	2·4	15·4	11·2
Psychosomatic illness.	1·3	4·4	4·7	3·8
Mixed – part of the child's absence is due to illness but one or more of the other factors is also relevant.	48·3	41·2	26·7	27·8
	100		100	

Children are far more likely to be at home with their parents' knowledge, with or without their consent, than to be truanting. The implication for the development of the education welfare service is not just that social work skills are more valuable than skill in catching truants; equally important is the need for schools to assist their welfare officers in developing close and informal links with children's homes. The education welfare service is rapidly developing new skills and a more professional identity; if teachers do not encourage these developments – accepting that welfare officers may have a valid contribution to make on organizational matters such as pastoral care and discipline – we could, in a few years time, have a situation in which welfare officers carry out increasingly professional social work with families with a corresponding reduction in their commitment to schools. If this happens, each may come to mistrust the other in the way that teachers and social workers from social services departments sometimes mistrust each other at present.

Associated problems

In an attempt to identify some of the potential problems which may contribute to persistent absenteeism we carried out statistical analyses on the returns from each school. As the schools ranged from more than 1,800 pupils to less than 600, we looked at the relevance of size. The results showed that the size of the school had no bearing on the incidence of persistent absenteeism. If anything, the larger schools had lower absentee rates but it was subsequently shown that this was probably due to a tendency for the largest schools to be in slightly 'better' districts.

To assess the influence of financial hardship in the school's catchment area, we compared absentee rates in each of the secondary schools with the proportion of children receiving free school meals. The results showed a very close relationship between poverty in the catchment area and absenteeism. This was the case irrespective of the size of the school.

In the 1973 survey, we also looked systematically over a twelve-month period at the Authority's records on children excluded from school for over one week for disciplinary reasons. Again we found that a school's size had no bearing on exclusion rates; pupils were neither more likely nor less likely to be classified as unmanageable by virtue of exclusion in large schools than in small schools. Contrary to expectations the same applied to the incidence of economic hardship in the catchment area. Schools in the most deprived parts of the city were not more likely to exclude pupils than schools in the most affluent.

In spite of the strong association between absentee rates and socio-economic hardship in the catchment areas, closer analysis of the results revealed a number of marked differences between schools. Thus, the sharp rise in absentee rates in the final year was not reflected in some schools, but was very marked in others; in one extreme case twenty-one fifth year pupils were persistently absent,

but only two in the first four years combined. In terms of the overall absence rate as well, there were unexpected variations between schools. Comparing former selective schools with former non-selective ones, we found no difference in absentee rates but a slight tendency for former selective schools to exclude more pupils.

Conclusions

The surveys have confirmed previous research findings that truancy is a relatively minor cause of unjustified absence from school. Poverty in the catchment area appears to have a major influence on absentee rates but not on whether children are classified as unmanageable by virtue of exclusion. Size of school seems to have no bearing on either absentee or exclusion rates. We are repeating the survey in the current academic year, and hope that the results will throw light on trends in different schools and across different age ranges. It is already clear that in some cases persistent absentee rates can vary quite widely from one year to the next in the same school. The first year of the raising of the school leaving age to 16 was 1973. The sharp peak in the fifth year rates was perhaps predictable for this reason. On the other hand, the 1974 results indicated that absenteeism among fifth year pupils was, if anything, higher in the second year of the ROSLA than in the first. We are now planning to reexamine the returns from individual schools to identify those which seem to be particularly successful, as well as those which seem to be having particular difficulties. We are also looking into the possibility of a small 'hard core' of children or families whose names reappear each year so as to review our arrangements for working with these families. In these ways we hope that the surveys will help us to make education more attractive to the small but worrying group of children who continually reject it.

Post O-level English –the study of language

P. GANNON

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'We believe that the post O-level English syllabus should contain a language element for all pupils who wish to opt for it, and we recommend that A-level or whatever examination may replace it, should include a paper on this basis'.
*A Language for Life**

A great deal has happened in the world of education in general and of English studies in particular since the publication of the Lockwood Report in 1964,† and while it would not be appropriate here to resurrect the arguments which ensued over Professor Randolph Quirk's proposals at that time for an A-level language paper,‡ the time is, perhaps, right to reconsider two statements from the Lockwood Report: 'We believe . . . that the gap between literary and linguistic studies is narrowing' (para. 111) and 'We should like to see in the sixth form a movement towards the study of English language in its own right' (para. 112).

Pupils wishing to study English in higher education usually take O-level language and literature and then ignore any formal study of language for two or three years while they study for A-level English literature. After that they may go on to one of a bewildering variety of courses, some of which demand fairly rigorous study of Old English, Middle English or other Germanic and Romance languages, in addition to the staple fare of literature from Shakespeare to Hemingway. University courses increasingly offer Modern English language; many BEd courses include Modern English or linguistics; most polytechnics offer 'communications' courses which include Modern English or linguistics as a part. Indeed, the disconcertingly heterogeneous array of language options in higher education may prompt the questions 'Why no A-level in linguistics?' or 'Why not at least a language component in A-level English?' Many teachers in schools and lecturers in colleges and universities are, I know, applying themselves to just these questions, but their efforts are diffused and are often being conducted in relative isolation. What is certain is that one of the many clear messages of the Bullock Report is that whatever progress may take place in our schools will depend to a large extent on adequate preparation within higher education. But this, in turn,

* The Bullock Report. London: HMSO, 1974.
† *The Examining of English Language* – Eighth Report of the Secondary Schools Examination Council, London: HMSO, 1964.
‡ op. cit. v, Appendix.

is dependent upon adequate preparation at school. I am proposing that one way of breaking this apparent circularity would be to rectify the anomaly which prompted the epigraphic quotation from *A Language for Life.*

Some objections

Those of us who have been involved in linguistics for some years are familiar with the extremely polemical nature of much of the opposition to its constituting a proper study, either at sixth form or at college level. What are the chief objections not just to the study of linguistics but to the study of language at all in the sixth form? There are, of course, many objections to this or that particular approach to language study but, in my experience and that of several of my colleagues, opposition seems to present itself under three main headings.

First it is said that linguistics is too difficult. It is certainly true that the linguistic sciences have, in the past fifteen to eighteen years, become increasingly complex at the level of both general and descriptive theory. I frequently encounter the argument that because of this, linguistics is so complex and esoteric a discipline that it has nothing to offer in the way of pedagogical content or methodology. I understand this argument but believe it to be fallacious. It is usually adduced by those who, for whatever reason, have too restricted a view of the discipline or by those whose views are to some extent philosophically determined by a commitment to models of learning characterized by labels such as 'fluid', 'dynamic' or 'unstructured'.

Now, of course the study of language brings with it certain difficulties such as the availability of staff to teach it, a shortage of suitable material, justification to colleagues of its inclusion in the timetable, and so on. But this applies to all subjects, not just language. With those who at this point object that the study of language is not the same as the study of linguistics, I should at once agree; however, I should then wish to say that I am less than satisfied with an approach to language which seeks to take whatever is comfortable from an assortment of disciplines, lump it together, and end up with what is all too frequently an idiosyncratic set of procedures that are superficial and difficult to monitor. Professor J. M. Sinclair draws an amusingly pertinent analogy, in relation to linguistics and teacher-training, between the training of teachers and that of medical practitioners, while he deals with the 'difficulty' objection.* I believe that the same arguments apply, *mutatis mutandis,* to the study of language, drawing upon the available theories of linguistics, in the sixth form. The real difficulty lies not in the nature of the discipline but in discovering appropriate modes of teaching, materials and presentation.

Another, and perhaps more recent, typical objection is that of counter-productivity. Any discrete course, it is said, that has as its object of study the mother-tongue, may turn out to be counter-

* Sinclair, J. M. 'Linguistics in Colleges of Education'. *Dudley Education Journal Vol 1, No 3, 1973.*

productive in that teaching staff not directly involved with it may feel absolved from the responsibility of constantly attending to the language of their subjects and the implications for the teaching of it. In other words, such a course may work against the realization of a 'language across the curriculum' policy as advocated in chapter twelve of the Bullock Report. Well, this may happen, but it should not and need not; in any case, we surely ought not to commit ourselves to inactivity because of possible cynicism on the part of colleagues.

A third objection relates to the centrality of literature. It is interesting to note the development of the arguments that have been unfolding in the pages of *The Times Higher Education Supplement* during the early months of this year on the nature of English studies. In one of the articles which initiated the correspondence, Frances Gibb notes that '... an A-level English language in schools is now shortly expected'.* Lack of space prevents us here rehearsing all the arguments that are relevant but what is certain is that a simple dichotomy between 'prac. crit.' and the rest is ineffably crude. Linguistics, however broadly or narrowly conceived, has a major role in this continuing debate. (I am assuming that the connexions between English studies in higher education and sixth form courses are so important as not to need stressing.)

Allied to this is a fourth kind of objection, which seems to reside in the deeply held convictions of many teachers that the metalanguage of linguistics is in some way 'dehumanizing'. This is an objection that I do not understand, since it is one which can be directed against any subject which has developed its own universe of discourse. It is, of course, true that the mother-tongue is held to be somehow valuable. More specifically, instances of mother-tongue utterances (including literary texts) that have become assimilated by an individual become part of that individual's identity and even to question the nature of such utterances is to question that identity. But this defensive attitude that often finds its expression in a Wordsworthian fearfulness – 'we murder to dissect' – reinforces my conviction that we need more not less access to the insights derived from linguistic study.

Some prerequisites

Before we get rid of what is to me a false opposition between English literature and English language and devise a sixth form course in English, there are, I suggest, at least three prerequisites. First, we must all acquire a much more sophisticated view of what actually goes on in the classroom. There is much good and some distinguished, even brilliant, teaching to be observed in our secondary schools but more knowledge is required if we are to have a powerfully predictive base on which more and more teachers, not all of whom may be endowed with an intuitive grasp of what does

* Gibb, Frances. 'The New Criticism'. *Times Higher Education Supplement.* 5 March 1976, and ensuing correspondence.

and does not work in a teaching/learning relationship, may develop their own work. We need knowledge, not just of linguistics, but of what is implied in classroom discourse, of the relationship between language and learning, of the psychological variables relevant to linguistic performance, of the sociological determinants operating on linguistic achievement, and of much more. The work of Barnes, Britton, and Tough is too well known and valued to need lengthy reference here but this is just the beginning. Second, English teachers need to know more about their mother-tongue. This inescapably implies much more linguistic study, especially in initial training but also in in-service training and in self-initiated study. Third, a great deal of work is demanded in the area of organizational and curricular planning, including the difficult question of assessment, if we are to achieve the kind of framework which will allow for a study of language relevant to educational aims (even if we can be sure what educational aims are).

What to do?

How is all this to be achieved? There are as many answers, no doubt, as there are individuals to comment. But I should like to suggest that a practical view should take account of three major considerations.

First, a much more serious view of in-service education. Naturally, the DES short-course programme is taking account of Bullock's recommendations in current and future planning, but the present uncertainty over financial resources leaves the various agencies, colleges, university departments, advisory services, and local authorities in a position where curricular as well as economic priorities need to be clear. Perhaps even more important is that schools need to be more keenly aware of the possibilities of mounting their own in-service policies, with appropriate outside help if necessary. In my experience, some of the most valuable work on language has been self-initiated. The impetus for this may come from different sources, but in most successful cases, there has been energetic stimulus afforded by head teachers, heads of departments, or others in responsible positions on the staff.

Second, the setting up of a dissemination group, perhaps though not necessarily organized under DES auspices through HM Inspectorate. Such a group's composition could, in any event, be fairly small; its brief would need to include:

a compilation, descriptive and evaluative, of present practice;
the dissemination of information;
the dissemination of pilot material.

Third, feedback from schools and teachers to all those concerned with the reorganization of post-16 education. This does not mean that any particular strategy or theory should be advocated, but that it is up to all teachers and educationalists to hold in the forefront of their planning the issues raised by the Bullock Report. While it is true that the Bullock Committee set the upper age limit, for quite practical reasons, at the statutory school-leaving age, it is still the

case that the Report's implications go well beyond 16. We are speaking of a language for life. School sixth forms, sixth-form colleges, colleges of FE, the Schools Council 16–19 Project,* all could incorporate into current thinking a consideration of the possibility of an optional paper in A-level English. Perhaps the Schools Council may reconsider the ill-fated recommendations of the Lockwood Committee of more than a decade ago.

Personally, I can see no good reason why linguistics should not be an acceptable study in school sixth forms for those who wish to opt for it. But I am not arguing that particular case here; I am saying that it is time to resolve the false dichotomy between English literature and English language and to apply ourselves to a modest optional language element in A-level English, with less regard to vested interests than has been evident in the past. Nor am I arguing for a particular kind of syllabus. Some teachers would wish to lay stress on language in its social context, others on stylistics, others again on practical fieldwork. The trade-off effects might well include a heightened awareness of the possibilities and limitations of linguistic processes and, more speculatively, an increased efficiency in language use. There are many difficulties, but it may be salutary to keep in mind Bloomfield's assertion that 'Many people have difficulty at the beginning of language study, not in grasping the methods or results (which are simple enough) but in stripping off the preconceptions which are forced on us by our popular-scholastic doctrine'.†

*Schools Council Project 16–19. Director, John Dixon, Bretton Hall College, Wakefield, Yorks.

† Bloomfield, L. *Language*. New York, 1933.

Writers in schools

ALAN BROWNJOHN

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What is the Writers in Schools scheme? What is the best way of making use of a writer visiting a school so that teachers, pupils, and writers all enjoy and benefit from the experience?

Two hugely contrasting images come to my mind when I consider the ways in which schools employ the Arts Council's Writers in Schools scheme. They are images from personal experience. One is of the dozen or so coaches parked in the playground of a comprehensive school in the heart of England, with fifth and sixth formers from neighbouring comprehensives spilling out to join home school pupils in a hall of perhaps 700 people – all for *my* terrified benefit, to hear me read my poems and discuss the travails and pleasures of writing them. But what a lively and stimulating audience this was! I finally enjoyed the afternoon a lot, even if I began by feeling too overwhelmingly honoured by all the organization and the huge numbers, and hardly equal to the task.

The other image is of a tiny sixth-form coffee room, in another comprehensive, also in the English heartlands, where the senior English teacher made some minimal introductions and left me with seven very interested, very 'motivated', entirely voluntary sixth formers, to read and chat informally for a couple of hours. I was scarcely less alarmed by this kind of exposure, at the outset, than I had been by that enormous hall-full: after all, you might get away with histrionics, charismatic postures and glib answers much more easily with 700 than with seven. But this again, was a delightful, thought-provoking — and decidedly stretching — session. If I had anything to offer, I felt it had been used equally well in both places. And I came to the conclusion that there is no single, simple recipe for making the best use of a writer visiting a school. You cannot legislate for success, any more than you can guard against failure: there are too many variables and imponderables. I felt that the flexibility with which Writers in Schools was being used was one of its great advantages and benefits.

Origin of the Scheme

The Scheme began in 1968 as the result of the desire of the Literature Panel of the Arts Council of Great Britain to place the occasional visits of poets, novelists and playwrights to schools on a regular and subsidized basis; believing that both schools and writers had much to gain from a fruitful, perhaps challenging, interchange between creative artists and their future readership. And besides,

was not the writer, traditionally something of a solitary and a mystery, someone who might be made to seem more natural and comprehensible if he came out of his study to read and discuss his work? The schools or local education authorities were to be asked to contribute one half of the writer's fee per day's visit, plus travelling and subsistence expenses – and the Arts Council would pay the rest. The DES found that the LEAs were happy to agree in principle to launch the idea, and Writers in Schools got under way, slowly, with eight writers' visits in the last quarter of 1969-70 and seventy-nine in 1970-71.

There were, at the beginning – and there still are – problems of communication, and a certain reluctance on the part of some LEAs to venture into full-hearted use of the idea. The Arts Council issued annually, from the start, a handy list of writers willing to participate. But how to get it round to those who would want to use it? Missives of this kind are very frequently buried in the in-tray in the education office, or the secretary's room at school, and end up in the waste-paper basket. The Arts Council still believes that Writers in Schools is under-utilized – and this even though visits have risen dramatically in number: 126 in 1972-73; 239 in 1973-74; 339 in 1974-75; and 353 in 1975-76, with a total of £4,805 paid in subsidies in that year. Writers' visits seem unduly concentrated in the south-east (though Greater London falls chronically short in its take-up of the offer). The Arts Council makes honourable mention of the interest of Manchester, Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, Warwickshire, Hampshire and Cleveland; but prefers to remain reticent about some of the really stony ground. Nevertheless, word has gradually passed round and there is every hope that, now the Arts Council will consider paying half of the fees (from a £20 minimum) of *any* writer schools or LEAs wish to invite, and will also consider helping with those often heavy travel expenses, the Scheme will continue to grow despite the bleak financial climate. As one Arts Council official put it: 'At 353 visits in a year, Writers in Schools begins to look more like a small but important educational garment and less like a frill'.

Mutual benefits

The benefits derived from the Scheme by both schools and writers are various, and I would suggest, very real ones. For the writer there is the obvious financial advantage for a worker in a gravely underpaid trade. But few writers would visit schools (or colleges, or teachers' centres and courses: all come under the Scheme) to be grilled about their art for even a moderately good fee if they did not enjoy the experience. The visits can be immensely tiring work, especially for those writers (obviously the majority) who have never been teachers. The enjoyment and the other, intangible, benefits lie in the pleasure and insight provided by contact with alert or bored, sympathetic or sceptical, uninterested or enquiring minds – with, in short, the audience with which they are striving to communicate as writers, the people whose nature, whose very existence, they can only guess at while sitting in front of the typewriter at home. This contact causes most writers to think again about who they might be

writing *for*. 'Who *do* you write for?' is a frequent question from school audiences, and since only one writer in a thousand could truthfully and ruthlessly say 'Myself alone', he has to answer, in one formulation or another, 'People like you' – and then look round the room to see exactly who they *are*. Other, scarcely less crucial questions, cause the writer to think again about the entire process of his creative art: how, when, and why ideas come to him, and are developed, his function in society, his hopes and aspirations. Conversations between writers on these matters are almost altogether technical, specialized and introspective: laymen's questions from school audiences are the most open, challenging and useful ones.

For the schools, there is the previously mentioned advantage of actually seeing in the flesh that rather withdrawn, remote beast, the creative artist. With most visiting lecturers or performers the interest lies in the subject of the talk or the content and quality of the performance. With the writer, the subject is the man or woman himself: he has come especially to talk about himself and the processes of his own personal, private imagination, and in the very best Writers in Schools sessions the result can be akin to revelation. For one thing, the traumas (and the more mundane difficulties of writing) which all writers tend to mention if confronted with questions about the problems of creating can reveal to the questioner the simple, unexpected fact that it *is* as difficult for the established writer as for anyone else. It is both an insight and an encouragement. Speeches of thanks from teachers, whether formal or informal, frequently mention, with, I believe, complete sincerity, the help that a writer's visit has given to pupils (and teachers also, perhaps!) interested in writing for themselves. The message of the writer's visit to such pupils is unlike that of, say, the visiting musician: it says, you *can* write, if you are prepared to think it worthwhile and make the effort, *because* there are these problems, which I encounter as well as you, and which I have to struggle to overcome.

Format of visit

If the 'format' of the writer's visit is flexible, and is in practice varied from school to school, there are, all the same, ways in which the visit can be made less strenuous and more useful educationally. The writer's fee is paid him for a day, but it may be expecting too much of his energies to ask him to go on duty for the whole of that time. The most usual practice has been to have him in for one extended session of reading and questions, with one audience large or small; and two long sessions – even more, three or four (or even a whole seven-period day, which has been known!) – may prove too much for him. He ought also to have at least the conditions which a teacher would expect and require if he was developing a complex theme over, say, a length of time representing a double-period lesson: as complete an absence as possible of interruptions (bells, messages, the extraction of half his audience at half-time for medical inspection or hockey), as quiet a setting as possible, and only the minimum of intrusion

('off-putting' even where it is well-intended) from teachers. The function of the teacher during the visit is, in fact, rather a difficult one. He must somehow create the atmosphere in which the writer can read, and answer questions, comfortably and frankly, but he must not be *too* much of a presence in his own right: it is the writer's session, not his own lesson or a variant of it. It is something rather special and unusual – yet it ought to be a free giving and receiving of ideas about a particularly private and intimate process. Poor teacher, perhaps! It is asking a lot of *him* to be the ideal, unobtrusive mediator between visitor and audience. But I believe myself, after considerable experience with school audiences of all kinds, sizes and ages, that he still ought to be *there* in the room, and not withdraw completely, leaving the writer to get on sudden amiable terms with all those strangers. Best of all, he should endeavour to be there *as an equal,* participating without inhibiting, tactfully helping discussion along if it should lag, without unconsciously freezing it up by his efforts.

Value of visit

We are not all destined to be creative artists (and this doubt afflicts established playwrights, novelists and poets even more than it does novices) so that the value of the Writers in Schools scheme for those with no literary ambitions might need to be stressed. Above all, it is a value which lies in the sense a successful visit imparts of the relevance and interest of *reading.* Second only in frequency to those questions which relate to the writer's creative processes are those which refer, indirectly or directly, to the nature and importance to him of his own experience of books: which ones he liked at school (the questioner thinking of what he himself likes and dislikes, finds stimulating or heavy going); which ones influenced him; which ones he reads now, and which writers he enjoys most; which other writers he knows himself. The writer ought not to be – and in practice, I hope, *is* not — thrown by the simplest, the most naive questions of this kind. His answers ought to help establish – and possibly this is one of the most important purely *educational* functions of the Scheme, one of the best reasons why it should be used, and used more thoroughly, for very ordinary, essential educational purposes, by schools and LEAs – that reading is a vital and exciting ingredient of *everyone's* living. An outside visitor (given the right kind of follow-up: nothing too earnest and strenuous in itself, since the visit should be a pleasure, not the prelude to more classroom chores) should be conveying more in his one-off descent on a school than the English teacher can convey in, say (let's be not too hard on him) a dozen lessons.

It is very useful to have even the oddest questions, those which, properly answered, establish some sense of perspective and reality: I have not minded being quite seriously asked (in Lincolnshire) whether I have ever met Lord Tennyson, or (in London) whether I *was* D. H. Lawrence (because I happened to arrive with a Penguin of Lawrence's poems among my own books). Tennyson and Lawrence were, at least, real things to be asked about by the

questioner, starting-points for an interest in reading *them*, if not bothering with reading poems of my own. I felt, if it does not seem too ponderous to put it this way, privileged to answer, in these instances (and numerous other less absurd-seeming ones) questions openly and vulnerably posed from positions of extreme ignorance. The acquisition of all knowledge begins (as too few adults recognize, including some teachers) from the willingness to make a fool of oneself at the very start. If Writers in Schools had done nothing else it would have achieved something by allowing children to feel they could raise some fundamental issues of this kind, without shyness, by the open and candid approach which the happiest kind of writer's visit seems to encourage.

Trends 1976/4

Economics in the school curriculum

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Economics has for some years been the most rapidly expanding of all school subjects, and this expansion has matched the mushrooming of economics in universities and polytechnics. Yet the subject now attracts considerable criticism both from within the educational world and from outside. What place should economics now occupy in the school curriculum?

The development of economics in schools should not be exaggerated: although its growth in fifth and sixth forms has been quite remarkable (at A-level it has overtaken such subjects as biology and German, and at present rates of progress will catch up with history and physics within the next few years), it still scarcely exists lower down the secondary school as a subject in its own right. This is hardly surprising in the light of the trend towards a more integrated school curriculum with less fragmentation of the working day into separate 'periods', particularly with younger pupils: one often meets teachers of history or chemistry bemoaning the dwindling of their subject as a separate entity for such pupils. In schools with which I am in frequent contact one can find 'integrated studies', 'background studies', 'personal studies', 'related studies', 'liberal studies', 'social studies', 'human studies' or 'humanities'. The different names all denote broadly similar courses containing elements of the historic, geographic, economic, sociological, and literary approaches to particular topics or themes, whether these be, for example, 'man', 'transport', 'towns', or 'housing'. In each case there is an economic dimension to the topic in question and the teacher of economics therefore has a contribution to make to such integrated work.

Economic dimension

The economic dimension here refers to the economist's way of looking at the problems which confront man: the economist sees man as a being with an insatiable appetite, not just for food, but also for shelter, warmth, clothing, and less essential products of many different kinds. No limit to his demands has ever been recorded: once he has a bicycle he desires a small car, then a larger car, then two cars – and even three-car or four-car families are now not unknown. He is confronted with a world containing essentially limited resources: however deep down we manage to dig, and whatever use we may eventually make of solar energy or lumps of minerals imported from other planets, no one can pretend that supplies of scarce materials are inexhaustible (witness the world's rapidly dwindling stocks of oil and petrol). When greedy man meets limited resources, some method of choice between alternative uses is required, hence the pricing system and all the associated economic problems.

Most economists* would claim that it is highly desirable that school pupils should be acquainted with basic economic concepts as part of their preparation for life, but they are by no means agreed on the form this should take, or at what age it should begin. Perhaps the majority of economics teachers have argued for its extension as a separate school subject, and some have maintained that attempts at integration with other subjects may prevent pupils achieving a real understanding of economic concepts.† Others‡, however, not only feel that the pressure on the school timetable is such that to urge the development of economics as a subject for younger pupils would be unrealistic, they also consider it would be undesirable in view of the general trend towards greater integration. I know of schools where economics as a separate subject is taught to third form and fourth form pupils, but such schools are in a minority and likely to remain so. That all secondary school pupils should become acquainted with the basic economic principles early in their school careers is widely agreed,§ but for the majority of pupils this will be done in some integrated context.

Teachers' contribution

For teachers of economics, initially at least, their contributions to such integrated courses often pose considerable problems. Economics is now a very wide subject and most economics graduates will have had to specialize in one or more aspects of the subject during their own studies. They may now have to turn to economic problems with which they themselves are not familiar and for which

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* But not Lord Robbins: see *The Economic Journal*, December 1955.

† For example, Robinson T. K. 'Economics for the 16-year-old School Leaver' in N. Lee, ed., *Teaching Economics*, 2nd edition, 1975.

‡ For example, Holley, Brian. 'The Place of Economics in the Secondary School Curriculum' in D. Whitehead, ed., *Curriculum Development in Economics*, 1974.

§ See, for example, the statement by the Schools Council: 'Everyone, these days, needs some contact with the language and ideas of elementary economics', *Schools Council Working Paper No. 2*, 1965.

they have little idea of sources of reading or other suitable documentation. To manage to do so should not be beyond the wit of a competent teacher but this point does emphasize the need for careful forward planning of such integrated courses. The 'can you take 4C for towns tomorrow morning, Bill?' type of planning just will not do.*

For the present, however, the majority of the time on the timetables of most economics teachers is devoted to the external examination courses in fifth and sixth forms and it is these courses that have given rise to a number of anxieties in recent years, of which, perhaps the most important centres on the curriculum content of such courses. The essence of economics is a rigorous body of theory which has been gradually developed over the past two hundred years or so and which is still developing. Much of the theory is now widely agreed among economists and has been in a more or less settled form for many years. Moreover, it has been common practice for at least an elementary version of much of the theory to be taught to sixth form pupils (with rather less for fifth formers). However, this means that there is a great deal of theory to be covered in the course, and a glance through any elementary economics textbook will indicate that its contents are largely theoretical.

An economist can easily defend this situation by asserting that pupils cannot hope to tackle applied economics problems unless they are familiar with the theory to be applied but, at the same time, many teachers of the subject are concerned at some of the effects of this orientation. One is that very many students undergo a period of disillusion with the subject: they frequently arrive with a genuine desire to learn something about Britain's economic problems, or the balance of payments, or North Sea oil, but find themselves spending many hours on the theory of perfect competition or the theory of marginal productivity which they find hard to relate to the real world. Anyone who has experience of interviewing potential university entrants will have been struck by how many seem incapable of applying quite elementary economic principles to practical situations, even though they score high marks at A-level for their theoretical knowledge. A further yet related problem arises where expert economists cannot agree over competing theories, as in the 'Keynesians versus Monetarists' debate, but such disagreements are frequently omitted entirely from school courses for obvious reasons. The subject matter of most economics courses (and the contents of many economics textbooks) has not changed for many years: the appalling economic problems of the developing countries, the alternative economic systems in the Communist world, economic aspects of environmental pollution, and the economics of urban transport problems, are probably as relevant

* Some excellent teaching materials are being developed for such integrated work, especially perhaps the materials from the Schools Council Project, History, Geography and Social Science 8–13. See Sumner, Hazel. 'Integration and Sequence in Economics for 8–13 Year Olds' in D. Whitehead, ed., op. cit.

and important as any problems with which economists are confronted today, yet it would be a quite exceptional school course that would even mention any of these. Even schools and colleges in developing countries frequently have pupils preparing for U.K. GCE and other examinations and following similar syllabuses. This is, of course, partly a chicken and egg situation in that, since pupils can evidently satisfy the requirements of the GCE Boards, there is little incentive for economics teachers to 'modernize' the content of their courses and writers of textbooks inevitably continue to reflect the approach of courses common in schools. On educational grounds, modifications to the existing course content would seem to be highly desirable, but it is not easy to see how this can be achieved.

Problems of terminology

Another problem area relates to the use of mathematical and statistical terminology. As economics develops into a more rigorous and scientific subject it is perhaps inevitable that more of its propositions require to be, or can be, stated via mathematical expressions of one kind or another. As the testing of theories becomes ever more complex, statistical methods can scarcely be avoided. Thus teachers have to be circumspect over the books they recommend to their students if the latter are not to be disconcerted by finding such expressions as $\frac{dy}{dx}$, R^2, or t-test results scattered throughout the text. There can now be little doubt that students of economics at degree level must be prepared to familiarize themselves with such terms (and it is remarkable how simple are the meanings of such expressions once fears of anything in mathematical garb have been overcome). But at sixth form level the position is necessarily different, and I for one would argue against undue usage of quantitative methods in school courses; the ability to read and interpret a set of statistics relating to some aspect of the economy is, of course, another matter since anyone who cannot do so cannot be said to have even a basic grasp of the way economists work. The recent tendency of GCE examiners to include questions on these lines is therefore to be welcomed; it is even not unknown for a bright candidate to pick up some point in a set of figures which had not occurred to the examiners.

Opting for economics

Finally, mention should be made of the students who opt to study economics at 15 or 16. Clearly they have not been entirely satisfied by the more traditional school subjects and presumably are looking for something different, perhaps more relevant to the adult lives they are about to lead. Economics teachers may broadly be said to be doing their best to satisfy this need. At best, the pupils become captivated by the subject, pass their examinations with flying colours, and perhaps go on to study more advanced economics elsewhere. Too many, however, do none of these. At A-level the national pass rate for economics is usually lower than the national average for all subjects and this naturally causes economics teachers

some disquiet. It is inevitable that this point should be linked with the fact that, essentially, it is the students who, for one reason or another, have not fully succeeded at other subjects who turn to 'new' subjects such as economics. There can therefore be little doubt that, at present, economics teachers find themselves teaching many of the relatively less able O- and A-level candidates.

Within the space available, it has not been possible to do more than refer to some of the main problems relating to the current expansion of economics teaching: economics is now firmly entrenched in the curriculum of fifth and sixth forms and is continuing to develop, whether as a distinct entity or as part of some form of integrated course, throughout secondary schools. There is no sign yet of any slackening in its rate of growth. Teachers of economics may, justifiably, take some pride in what has been achieved but they are also, primarily through the Economics Association, continuing to examine some of the associated problems which have arisen.*

* Nor have LEAs been negligent in this field. The issue of *Economics*, Summer 1976, Vol. XII, Part 2, listed LEA advisers whose responsibility was specific to, or included, economics, and the list covered seven pages of small print.

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Dear Sir,

I certainly agree with Peter Holmes (TRENDS 1976/2) that school statistics must cater for the needs of ordinary citizens, future scientists and mathematics specialists, and that there is a wide range of topics and applications to choose from. Mr Holmes quotes many examples and it is convenient to divide them into three groups.

As he explains, we live in a society which makes much use of quantitative data, and it is customary to refer to many of these figures as statistics whether they require statistical methods for their analysis or not. The study of these statistics often requires only ratios, percentages, averages, and simple diagrams together with some understanding of the phenomena they are used to describe. Price index numbers, measures of population change, and some analysis of time series could form part of an arithmetic of citizenship course.

Statistical methods are needed to describe the characteristics of populations of variate values. It is important that ordinary citizens and future scientists should learn to think in terms of the shapes of frequency distributions and the dispersion of individual values about their average. This variability is a fundamental characteristic

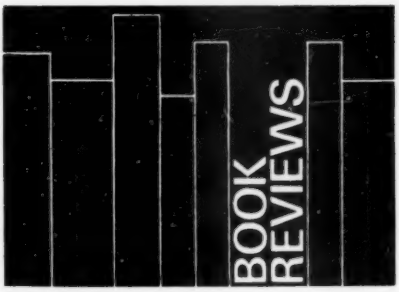
of all natural and social groups. Histograms, frequency curves, cumulative frequency curves, percentiles, measures of average and dispersion can also be discussed as practical arithmetic, though some knowledge of area and algebraic notation are also needed.

The use of correlation and regression analysis can also be discussed at this stage with the aid of scatter diagrams, but an adequate treatment of these topics is only possible if pupils are familiar with graphical algebra, functions and some differential calculus.

The need for a theory of sampling can be appreciated without using probability theory; it is important to remember that mathematicians did not invent sampling. On the other hand, probability is essential for the derivation of theoretical frequency distributions and the study of statistical inference. It also has applications for insurance and business decisions. A good case can be made for teaching probability in schools, but many non-mathematicians are likely to find it much more difficult and less useful than an introductory statistics course.

The cooperation between mathematics and science teachers is certainly desirable; but scientists tend to think in terms of the statistical methods required by their own sciences and these are not always suitable for an introductory statistics course. Many aspects of science are or should be matters of common knowledge and at school level the mathematics teacher needs to be able to teach statistics through its applications, using data from whichever science is most appropriate for his purpose.

FREDA CONWAY



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The Doris Lee Lectures 1975
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Ivor K. Davies
McGraw-Hill £4.95

There are distinct signs that the debate on the school curriculum is entering a new and very important phase, and that the debate is going to involve powerful interests outside the ones traditionally deferred to in such matters. Moreover, the debate will almost certainly be tough, and that is wholly desirable.

These two books suggest that we have reached the new era; the first by its plain speaking on the matter, the second by its economic survey of a field that is now over-rich with schemes and philosophies. It is not uncommon to hear complaints that the whole subject of the curriculum has become absurdly rarefied and introspective: 'the trouble with so much curriculum theory . . . is that the language' (i.e. of the teacher) 'and the consequent understandings of the practitioner are not respected' (Richard Pring, *Doris Lee Lectures*). Another complaint is that the process of change has become bogged down in a confusion of dogmas, experiments and innovations; to Paul Hirst (*op. cit.*) curriculum theory is 'still nothing short of chaos'. Economic determinists will not be the only ones to savour the arguments of Joslyn Owen (*op. cit.*) that the generous provision of resources which has sustained this expensive and free-wheeling debate for so long may well diminish in the latter quarter of the century. This is not necessarily bad: harder circumstances often sharpen our thinking, notably about objectives and priorities.

One particular objective – the curricular variety – receives full treatment from Ivor Davies. He considers the subject historically, and outlines the long evolution of the matter from Herbart and Spencer to Bloom, Bruner, Gagné *et al.* There are full and comprehensible lists of the pros and cons of objective-based curricula, and some attempt to give the reader a taste of the schemes by the actual chapter plan and layout; the choice of typefaces reinforces this approach. The lists of references are compendious and the indices are full and detailed. At the same time, the central problems of much current curriculum philosophy are highlighted by collecting numerous selections in one work: the turgid prose; the frequently ambiguous or obscure terminology, and the attempts to reduce the possibility irreducible to neat matrices and taxonomies.

Taking these works together, there are sufficient straws in the wind to suggest a qualitative change in the curriculum deliberations of our day. Michael Young (*Doris Lee Lectures*) reminds us of at least two approaches (Marxist and phenomenological) that have been little heard amidst all the objectivist exchanges: Ivor Davies's lists remind us that there is an oversufficiency of models to choose from – more than enough to jam the processes of deliberation – and that so little of all this discussion is related to the needs of an industrial society.

Finally, there are two major considerations that are often omitted from these discussions. The first is our marked lack of understanding as yet about the detailed workings of the human cortex. Much of the extensive discussing and publishing on the methods of organizing our learning have no more insight into the cognitive processes than have the views of trainspotters about the economics and complexity of transport systems. Secondly, John White (*Doris Lee Lectures*)

speculates on the possible motives that led governments (1926, 1944) to withdraw from curricular affairs and to transfer the matter (in effect) to schools. But what do we mean by 'schools'; who actually does decide? How are the decision-makers kept informed about the present and likely future needs of society, of industry, of autonomous citizens? How far are they acquainted with the problems of curriculum philosophy and organization? These questions are now being asked, the prevailing temper of our times is becoming sharper, and all kinds of 'unquestionable' assumptions are receiving intimations of mortality.

R. A. S. HENNESSEY

The half-way generation: A study of Asian youths in Newcastle upon Tyne
J. H. Taylor
NFER £5.55 paperback

This book is a fascinating study of sixty-seven Indian Pakistani youths who were either born in Newcastle upon Tyne or have spent a substantial part of their lives there. The style of the book makes it compulsive reading, interspersing research findings with anecdote, verbatim comments made by the subjects and reasoned arguments. It will commend itself to those who usually find descriptions of research dry or difficult.

An explanation is attempted of almost all aspects of the backgrounds of the youngsters' families including the historical and current reasons for migration from specific localized areas. This description, although jarring a little because of its reliance on academic references as against the first-hand experiences evident elsewhere in the study, nevertheless provides an acceptable backcloth against which to judge the degree of adaptability to English life that has taken place.

There are very encouraging signs in the academic progress that has been made by the youths in spite of probable initial language difficulties; more academic progress in fact than a control group of indigenous youngsters. This supports a view increasingly becoming apparent that the family environment of Indian and Pakistani children may be more supportive of their children's education than that of some indigenous groups amongst whom they live because of economic circumstances and social pressures. Their high aspirations for their children, sometimes said by teachers to be unrealistic, are both realistic and attainable even though because of linguistic or other adjustment factors achievement may take longer.

The author explores other possible explanations for educational success and in one instance perhaps comes too easily to the conclusion that later migrants are following a well-trodden path and therefore may not have the initiative and drive of earlier settlers. This may to some extent be so but it might under-estimate the enormous courage needed by a family to loosen itself from a tightly knit small rural community and deposit itself in a strange harsh urban sprawl even though there may be a welcoming community within it.

Considerable importance should be attached to the views expressed in Chapter 18, 'A feeling of not belonging' by the youths in interviews with regard to the pressures felt by them both from their families and the indigenous population. This is leading to a great deal of uncertainty as to their identity and future. Their statements and opinions make it very clear that simplistic views about assimilation or integration are irrelevant and that this embryonic multiracial society will have to give much more attention to issues such as cultural pluralism, racial discrimination and racial prejudice if these Indian and Pakistani youths and others like them are to become settled in a total social sense, escaping from the strain of perpectual self-consciousness about their colour. Their economic and academic success may not compensate if the social issues are not resolved.

In spite of its localized setting and the small size of the immigrant population

in Newcastle this report makes a very substantial contribution to an area about which there has been too little detailed study. A major strength of the work is the author's willingness to let the youngsters give their views and describe their experiences. There is an increasing need for this if the views of ethnic minorities are to be taken into account when social and education decisions are being taken which affect them.

It is to be hoped that this study will lead to similar works, perhaps covering broader geographical areas and larger samples. There is enough in this limited book, however, to make it an important document for school staff rooms and college courses.

P. SINGH

Post-compulsory education II: The way ahead

Edmund J. King, Christine H. Moor and Jennifer A. Mundy

Sage Publications £2.50

In 1974, following some three years of intensive exploration and enquiry conducted by the Comparative Research Unit of King's College, University of London, *Post-compulsory Education: A New Analysis in Western Europe* was published. That book is primarily the official report of the research team and sets out in considerable detail the evidence of a 'newness' in educational provision in student population of the 16–20 age group together with the immediate conclusions to be drawn from the field studies conducted in France, Germany, Italy, Sweden and England (reviewed in TRENDS 1975/2).

The present book *Post-compulsory Education II: The Way Ahead* is in effect a refinement of those conclusions that give a clear indication to the 'way-ahead' for developments in the educational system for the post-16 age group in the United Kingdom.

In Professor King's own words: 'This book is addressed directly to those who have to make decisions as administrators, teachers, advisers or simply as students seeking to familiarize themselves with the way ahead'. It is certainly presented in a concise language that will appeal to those whose time is precious yet are anxious to learn more about the inexorable changes in attitudes towards education among young people.

The book is about a whole new dimension of education for the young adult now that it is no longer restricted to pre-university forcing for the few and is no longer acceptable in less esteemed institutions for the 'less able'. The perils confronting curriculum designers seeking to devise curricula giving 'parity of esteem' are spelled out together with more acceptable solutions calling for a 'permeable stratification' of study patterns: courses which are short-term in fulfilling particular study or training requirements yet long-term in allowing later extension or transfer after gaining the short-term qualification – a permeable basis for recurrent education.

The possibility of a fresh start for young people as they move into the post-compulsory stage is regarded as essential as is the need for participant-learning and participant-management all of which involve major changes in the role of the teacher.

In-service training for teachers is very necessary yet all too often short-courses preach to the converted and individuals are faced with intractable tasks when they return to their schools; the authors appeal for stronger influence coming from outside the school such as education consultants, tailor-made courses prepared by recognized curriculum development bodies, and particularly a greater use of the staff and resources from colleges, polytechnics and universities.

In carrying out their research, the team were impressed by the vital importance and the social implications of adequate counselling and guidance before and after the age of 16; several sections are devoted to this work and a number of specific recommendations are made.

The final chapter draws together all the experiences detailed in the first four

sections and sets out clearly a range of conclusions and recommendations which fall into three main categories concerning:

institutional provision and reorientation;

counselling and guidance;

curriculum, teaching/learning arrangements and personal relationships within establishments for the 16–20 age group.

The authors leave us in no doubt that they prefer the separate institution for the post-compulsory student, ideally of the 'community college' type; their reasoned arguments are given but primarily they have in mind the importance of a fresh start after compulsory schooling and the need to cater effectively for young adults who will return to 'college' after varying periods away from educational environments.

G. W. MILBURN

From college to classroom: The probationary year
Derek Hanson and Margaret Herrington
Routledge and Kegan Paul £3.25
Teacher expectations and pupil learning
Roy Nash
Routledge and Kegan Paul £2.95
The dissemination of curriculum development
Jean Rudduck and Peter Kelly
(Jack Wrigley and Freddie Sparrow, eds.)
NFER £3.50

From College to Classroom: The Probationary Year describes in a pleasant and concise style, a project which followed through one group of sixteen students from their initial training to the end of their first year of teaching. It is well documented, and shows an admirable grasp of existing research in the field. The task which the authors (a college tutor and one of the sixteen students) set themselves, was to find how much of the college experience remained throughout the first year of teaching. There is also an attempt to identify the elements responsible for the process of socialization in teachers and students through their period of training and probation.

The conclusions from the evidence are not encouraging to those who wish to influence schools by initial training. Powerful forces reward those new teachers who conform, and discourage those who do not. The authors offer crumbs of hope in the final chapter. They believe that the new teacher can at least 'refrain from doing what is contradictory to one's principles' and can find expression for his or her ideas in out of school activities with pupils. Above all, they suggest, the credibility of 'new ideas' rests on the basic professional competence of the probationer, the criterion by which more experienced teachers will judge. Here, perhaps, lies the real challenge to the teacher educator.

Teacher Expectations and Pupil Learning is a sophisticated and welcome attempt to come to grips with the elusive relationship between teacher attitudes and behaviour, and pupil performance. It is not a report of original work, but has brought original and clear thinking to bear on a wide number of recent studies in this field.

Studies which have attempted a real analysis into teaching styles, not including the many who have recklessly accepted teachers' own descriptions of their style, have never achieved high success in relating particular styles to high pupil achievement. This is because it is too simplistic to ignore the many educational factors which bear upon the teacher-pupil relationship, and indeed which go to make up that important but many faceted feature we call 'classroom climate'. Dr Nash suggests that increased ability for self-judgement and self-assessment among teachers is the only reliable way to ensure improvement in their performance. Each child's experience of a classroom is unique, and only a teacher sensitive enough to respond to the many needs and many situations which arise, can hope to have a major or positive influence on pupil learning.

The Dissemination of Curriculum Development is in some ways a disappointing book. The theme of

dissemination was chosen by The Council of Europe to serve as a follow-up to the OECD/CERI handbook on curriculum development. Case studies of France, Denmark, Ireland, The Netherlands, Federal Republic of Germany, and England and Wales, are used to attempt to make what the authors call 'broad descriptions' of the dissemination process.

Some fundamental questions are ignored, however, or passed over very lightly. Questions about the origins and genesis of curriculum development, its relationships to organizational development and staff development, are mentioned but not explored. The case studies all seem to present the model of dissemination from centre to periphery, without examining ways in which central agencies can respond to developments arising from schools and teachers.

Despite this disappointment, the book makes interesting reading, and in presenting the outline of six countries' strategies for dissemination, it highlights some of the confused thinking in this area, the lack of real knowledge about the process, and the failure of many of us to effect and sustain more than a limited and superficial exercise of curriculum development dissemination. Radical reform of the secondary curriculum, at least, requires more knowledge and better strategies than most of us have currently at our command.

PAULINE PERRY

Teaching thinking
Edward de Bono
Maurice Temple Smith £4.15

You can learn to type with two fingers, developing your skill to a competence level just adequate for your needs and no further. To become fully proficient you would have to unlearn your low-order skill and concentrate on the process of typing itself. So it is with thinking, according to Edward de Bono.

In this book, he sets out to demonstrate the inefficiency of incidentally acquired thinking skills, and the need to train them specifically and deliberately. He points out that logic can be misleading; error-free thinking is not necessarily good thinking, and he regards the academic preoccupation with knowledge as inhibiting the development of effective thinking. He describes the complex nature of the thinking process, stressing the importance of perceptual skills, and questioning many of the features of untrained thinking. He says little that is new, either psychologically or philosophically, and he admits as much, but he does say it entertainingly and with commendable clarity.

Mr de Bono describes his programme for the systematic teaching of thinking, developed by his Cognitive Research Trust, and presents the anecdotal and quantitative evidence for its success. He stresses that the material is a practical programme actually used in a large number of schools, so that he can discuss problems arising from its use (such as how to timetable it), as well as the advantages (the development of better thinking strategies). In general, an interesting book which should prompt some serious questions about the effectiveness of our conventional teaching practices.

GRAHAM CRANMER

Pupils' attitudes to science – a review of research
M. B. Ormerod with D. Duckworth
NFER £3.50 paperback

This book is a valuable and extensive collection of references to research in this important field. These are reviewed in a series of chapters under the headings attitude measurement, differences between biology and physical sciences, difficulty of the physical sciences, practical work and discovery learning, girls and science, the role of the science teacher, social implications of science and the effects of home and environmental factors on attitudes to science. About half the references relate to papers published in

the last six years and nearly all of them are from British or North American sources.

This review is largely a compilation of material and comparatively little effort is made to examine the significance or reliability of the conclusions reached in the research papers referred to. The final chapter, 'Conclusions and implications' is very brief and there is little advice on what teachers should be doing.

However, this is a significant work and should be studied by those concerned with science teaching in our schools and colleges. It will also be valuable to anyone involved in science teacher training and educational researchers will find it an extremely useful bibliography.

I. G. E. WILDING

Teaching languages

Ideas and guidance for teachers working with adults

Editor: Edith R. Baer, Consultant: Eric Hawkins

BBC Publications £1.85

Over the years the BBC has produced a large number of courses and programmes designed to teach foreign languages on radio and television. They have been intended for school pupils and for adult learners and have usually been of a high quality. Those schools, colleges and individuals who have recorded these programmes for subsequent use in a controlled teaching or learning situation have had at their disposal a wide range of stimulating material backed up by interesting booklets, records and filmstrips. Many of the programmes have also been published by BBC Enterprises and are therefore available to people who did not hear or record the original broadcast. Though the Corporation normally aims its language programmes at a given age band or at those who are assumed to have spent a certain amount of time on the language in question, there is a good deal of overlap so that programmes ostensibly intended for adults are suitable for younger students and vice versa.

It is doubtful, however, if sufficient use is made of this wealth of valuable material in homes, schools and colleges in this country. Many institutions seem to find it extraordinarily difficult to make adequate, or any, recordings from radio or television even when they have the necessary equipment. Those that succeed in doing so are indeed well supplied with supporting material of all kinds. The BBC has long since recognized that it is very difficult to teach directly by radio or even television though some programmes still attempt to do so. When imaginatively produced material is recorded, however, and used by an experienced teacher able to provide sustained stimulus and correction it becomes even more valuable.

Teaching Languages is a collection of chapters by experienced teachers of adults aimed on the whole at those who teach in non-vocational further education though virtually everything that is advocated here is suitable to almost every language teaching situation. Professor Hawkins sets the scene with a masterly survey of language teaching over the years and other well-known linguists contribute chapters which contain a wealth of experience and practical advice. That most neglected of areas, feedback and assessment, receives a chapter to itself and proper use of techniques such as these can do a good deal to maintain the interest and motivation of students who may start off full of enthusiasm but swiftly discover that wanting to learn a language is different from actually doing so. Inevitably some of the advice given is somewhat idealistic but at least it provides a high standard which any teacher can attempt to achieve. Those who practise the precepts put forward here have reason to congratulate themselves on being competent and conscientious teachers.

Teaching Languages is a valuable addition to the literature on this topic and not the least valuable section of the book is the one entitled 'Sources of information'.

R. C. WILLIAMS

Education and the development of reason
Volume 1, A critique of current educational aims, *£1.25*
Volume 2, Reason, £1.75
Volume 3, Education and reason, *£1.25*
Routledge & Kegan Paul

This collection of essays was first published in 1972. It now appears in paperback form in three volumes. Professor Peters rightly remarks in his editorial note that the job of the philosophy of education is to draw together those areas of philosophy proper which are relevant to educational thinking. The problem of the philosophy of education lies in the difficulty of the application of the results of this thinking; the aim of the books in this series therefore is to build up a body of work which is 'both practically relevant and philosophically competent'.

Certainly the articles in these three volumes score high marks for philosophical competence consisting as they do of a total of twenty-eight articles written by leading names in Britain, America and Australia. Eighteen of the essays have been published previously as articles and it is extremely useful to have these essays in this readily available form. It must however be said that it is doubtful whether the structural aim of the three volumes is achieved. This aim is stated to be an attempt to postulate the development of 'reason' as an acceptable overall goal for the educational process. If reason is narrowly defined, such a goal can scarcely find general acceptance. On the other hand, if the definition is widely extended (as it is in these volumes) then the usefulness of the concept itself becomes increasingly meaningless. Furthermore, it is impossible to unravel any thread of progression or any elements of conclusion in what is in essence a juxtaposition of separate topics.

The value of the volumes therefore lies almost entirely in the quality of the individual and disparate offerings. Volume 1 includes Michael Oakeshott's 1971 lecture *Education: The Engagement and its Frustration*, which remains a fascinating essay with innumerable insights into the fallacies of 'de-schooling', the nature of knowledge and understanding, and the complexities and frustrations of the educational enterprise. Much of the material in these volumes is indeed of use to the philosopher as well as to the educationist and this is especially true of the second volume where the concepts of reason, belief, truth, and freedom of the will, are analysed: to this extent the second volume can be regarded as standing in its own right, regardless of any implications for educational thought.

The educationist sampling the menu *á la carte* will find that the third volume *Education and Reason* holds the most interest. Hirst's essay *Liberal Education and the Nature of Knowledge* appears once more and Gilbert Ryle's piece *Can Virtue be Taught?* deserves careful study in view of the current dialogue on the place and possibility of moral education in schools. Here the underlying difficulty is seen to lie in the fact that virtue is not a skill and does not relate to a body of fact which can be timetabled and taught. In Aristotelian terms, the task of education is to ensure that the pupil learns to like and dislike 'the proper things'.

This crux also bears upon the aesthetic and interpersonal elements of the educational process. For, as Peters remarks in the final essay *Education and Human Development*, it does not follow that because some human qualities are general, they can be developed in a general way: 'being critical without a mastery of some context . . . is just being captious . . . integrity without the discipline of a moral tradition is empty uplift'. This is a thought upon which curriculum planners will indeed wish to ponder.

W. S. FOWLER

Music with ESN children
Pamela I. Dickinson
NFER £3.65
Make a new sound
George Self
Alfred A. Kalmus £3.90

These two very different books have some important factors in common. Pamela Dickinson explores the possibilities of music-teaching to children of limited mental capacity who are thus unlikely to become musically literate beyond the most elementary of levels. Much of George Self's volume on the other hand, through extensive use of graphic notation, does not call for the normal use of music symbols. Teachers can therefore use both of these books without assuming any musical knowledge and experience from their classes and without needing the conventional skills of the music specialist.

The NFER work is sub-titled 'A Guide for the Classroom Teacher'. It is, however, chiefly a thorough account of a research project at a special school, and the class teacher for whom it is designed will need to work hard to make a 'guide' of it. The book provides plenty of very useful teaching material, although Mr Self and others mentioned in the bibliography would be startled at the allotment of 40 per cent of the programme activities to 'an introduction to notation' and about 1 per cent to 'exploration of sound'. The former has a practical basis, however, and includes some controlled improvization. Another 40 per cent is devoted to singing, incorporating class and taped accompaniments. Imaginative objectives are not numerous (some painting and musical illustrations to stories) and more concern with movement and dance would be valuable to the teacher. One sympathizes with the researcher in music involved in an assessment-orientated project, but there is much that is new and valuable here.

Reverting to the common factors in these two books, one naturally wonders whether Dr Dickinson's ESN pupils would not get as much satisfaction if they were concerned with graphic rather than staff notation. Mr Self's main concern however has always been to enable young people to perform in contemporary and creative styles. Nowadays even the self-educating young performers in their groups are often consciously attempting to make a new sound, and George Self has made a valuable contribution to music education over the years in linking some of the current musical desires of young people with their educational opportunities. Considering that this is the very point at which many schools feel that they are failing, it would appear to put Mr Self's work in a strong position for the future (together with that of a very gifted group of young British composers). *Make a New Sound* ranges from elementary to advanced performances and incorporates opportunities for integrated, mathematical and electronic activities. It should be added that there are many highly respected musicians, both inside and outside the educational world, who somehow do not have the slightest enthusiasm for making new sounds in the manner Mr Self suggests. Personally I regret this.

W. H. PARRY

They don't speak our language
Sinclair Rogers (Editor)
Explorations in Language Study Series
Edward Arnold £2.40

One of the most crucial areas of concern to teachers lies at the interface of linguistics and the practical demands of teaching aims. Writers on 'language study' (a useful term in the Doughty and Thornton context, though often used by those who wish to avoid studying linguistics while availing themselves of linguistics-derived insights) are usually well aware of the relative ignorance, in most general readers, both of linguistic theory and of how people actually use language. All too frequently the result is an uneasy liaison between oversimplified descriptive theory and some aspect of the more accessible social sciences.

The five articles in this volume reflect this persisting dilemma. After a rapid survey by Rogers of current sociolinguistic approaches, including a valuable section on 'apocryphal Bernstein' and a useful bibliography, the following two articles deal respectively with traditional regional influences on linguistic performance (J. Widdowson) and mother-child language interaction (C. E. Snow). The final two, by C. Adelman and R. Rutherford, concern themselves with teenage language. Adelman provides stimulating speculation on group affiliation as expressed through language while Rutherford, in his 'Talk about Pop', examines some functional aspects of teenage speech. He postulates an interesting category of 'unanalysability' to account for the way in which the functional load accorded to high-frequency lexical items (just, you know, thing, for example) is seen by the writer as an adolescent defence against possible adult violation of group cohesion.

The practical classroom applications of this volume are not, I think, as clear as in some of the others in the series but perhaps the challenging of assumptions about the language of children is a more immediate aim. The recurring danger of theoretical distortion through oversimplification occurs *passim* but the tolerant tone and intrinsic interest of the subject matter go far to compensate for this.

P. GANNON

The reluctant adolescent
Gerald Haigh
Maurice Temple Smith £3.50

In his foreword to the book, the author draws attention to the difficulties of a teacher who attempts to write about education, by comparison with the educational academic who, he says, has a much broader view of what happens in schools. Mr Haigh, who is currently Deputy Head of a middle school, writes from his experience gained in four secondary schools. His book is most helpful when he is clearly drawing upon his own experience rather than when, as in part of his third section, he makes more radical proposals based on the work of others.

This book is thoroughly readable, even enjoyable, not only for the breadth of the author's view but also for the directness of his style. Although the subjects are serious, the language used to discuss them is light, and the author does not hesitate to tilt at his own arguments. The book is in three parts. The first looks broadly at the range of problems raised by any consideration of adolescence in the seventies. The author leads us racily, though with concern, through the social aspects of disadvantage, to a consideration of the conflicts of values which can arise with some young people in some schools.

The second part of the book examines critically possible responses by schools including education for work, the quest for relevance, and experiments in de-schooling. Finally, in a section entitled 'Mainly Polemical', Mr Haigh discusses practical ways in which relationships between teachers and pupils can be improved. A somewhat unconvincing flirtation with the possibility of developing in this country an experimental programme of secondary education based not in a school building but in the community leads on to the final chapters on educating the emotions and the nature of authority.

It is difficult, as the author acknowledges, to generalize about a group of young people who have such obvious individual differences, and particularly so within the limits of a small book. As a result, the coverage is thin in some places and there is a certain lack of unity in the book as a whole. Despite these limitations, however, the book is well-worth reading. The author faces his problems squarely and although his criticisms are well distributed and do not exclude members of his own profession, he has many constructive suggestions to make. His arguments are presented in such a way that it is not always easy to know what he fundamentally believes in, but it is clear that

he starts from the standpoint that schools can help reluctant adolescents. Indeed he says that the 'exacting study of traditional disciplines' is necessary to produced autonomous adults and that, while a school should not be immune from change, it must continue to be 'a community of scholars, a guardian of culture and a bastion of moral values'. It is surely because some schools have, perhaps inevitably, had difficulties in getting such notions accepted by a few of their pupils that some adolescents have become reluctant.

C. A. NORMAN

Teaching in further education
L. B. Curzon
Cassell £2.95

This book is described in its introduction as '. . . intended specifically for those who are preparing for the various further education teachers' certificate examinations . . . and for practising teachers . . .'. From a consideration of aspects of the nature of learning, the book moves on to communication, control and teaching objectives, and then to the management and techniques of the teaching process; a final section of three chapters looks at the post-war development of further education, its organization and future.

The material is well ordered and clearly presented as the author has evidently applied the principles mentioned in the text to aid comprehension and assimilation. Where controversial matters are considered, the various points of view are stated fairly and the reader is enabled to form his own opinion on the balance of advantage.

The author has blended a consideration of underlying principles with examples drawn from a wide experience in a manner which produces an authentic text which has direct relevance to the needs of the target population. The importance given to behavioural approaches and the general tenor of the book, however, bear primarily on teaching/learning situations in further education colleges and are perhaps less comprehensively germane to the work of others in further education (for example, the growing proportion of those preparing for the further education teachers' certificate of the City and Guilds of London Institute (CGLI) engaged as part-time teachers in non-vocational adult education, a sector which after all caters for more students than the colleges). The situation in adult education, where the proportion of full-time staff to part-time teachers is very different from that in the colleges, and motivation frequently depends more on subject matter and its presentation than on examination goals, may offer valuable insights to college teachers, especially if the population of day-release students increases as the author anticipates.

Considering that this book is intended for those training to teach in further education, the section on the facilities available for this purpose is surprisingly small. The opportunities for in-service initial training offered by sandwich courses at the colleges of education (technical) or by part-time courses at more than thirty of their extra-mural centres would seem to merit much fuller mention, as indeed would the series of teacher development courses (731) devised by CGLI. Another aspect that might well have received introductory attention is the twinned field of the assessment of the quality of teaching and the determination of training needs.

It is good to see this addition to the somewhat restricted range of books concerned with the practical aspects of learning for the post-school student.

J. MAITLAND-EDWARDS

Additional books received

ADAMS, ELIZABETH (editor). In-service education and teachers' centres. *(Pergamon Press) £11.50.*

ALEXANDER, KERN, and K. FORBIS JORDAN (editors). Educational need in the public economy. *(University of Florida) $10.*

ARCHER, B., *et al.* Understanding biology. *(Mills & Boon) £2.95.*

BARANYAY, EILEEN. A lifetime of learning: a survey of further education facilities for mentally handicapped adolescents and adults. *(National Society for Mentally Handicapped Children/British Association for the Retarded) £1.30 (£1.45 by post).*

BERRY, MICHAEL. Principles of cosmology and gravitation. *(Cambridge University Press) £7.00 (£2.50 paperback).*

CARNEGIE FOUNDATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING. The states and higher education: a proud past and a vital future. *(Jossey-Bass) £4.50.*

CROSS, CLAIRE. Church and people 1450–1660. *(Harvester Press) £7.50 (Fontana/Collins) (£1.50 paperback).*

DAVIES, BRIAN. Social control and education. *(Methuen) £3.75 (£1.80 paperback).*

DEARDEN, R. F. Problems in primary education. *(Routledge & Kegan Paul) £3.00 (£1.50 paperback).*

DICKENS, A. G. The German nation and Martin Luther. *(Fontana/Collins) £1.00.*

DORE, RONALD. The diploma disease: education, qualification and development. *(Allen & Unwin) £5.95 (£2.50 paperback).*

GRENVILLE, J. A. S. Europe reshaped 1848–1878. *(Harvester Press) £8.00 (Fontana/Collins) (£1.25 paperback).*

HEIM, ALICE. Teaching and learning in higher education. *(NFER) £3.50.*

KELLY, LEO J. Sex through affection. (Dorrance) $5.95.

McPHERSON, ANDREW, and GUY NEAVE. The Scottish sixth. *(NFER) £3.95.*

MODGIL, SOHAN, and CELIA MODGIL. Piagetian research: Volume 1 – Compilation and commentary. *(NFER) £3.60.*

OGILVIE, R. M. Early Rome and the Etruscans. *(Harvester Press) £6.95 (Fontana/Collins) (£1.00 paperback).*

RAISON, TIMOTHY. The Act and the partnership. *(Bedford Square Press of the National Council of Social Service, distributed by Research Publications Services, Victoria Hall, East Greenwich, London SE10 0RF) £2.50 (£2.75 by post).*

REID, MARGARET I., and ROBERT J. McDOWELL. Guidance in the secondary school. *(NFER) £1.85.*

ROBINSON, PHILIP. Education and poverty. *(Methuen) £3.00 (£1.40 paperback).*

SANDAY, A. P., and P. A. BIRCH. Understanding industrial society. *(Hodder & Stoughton) Teacher's guide £2.75, Pupil's book £1.95.*

VAUGHAN, T. D. (editor). Concepts of counselling. *(Bedford Square Press of the National Council of Social Service) £2.50 (£2.70 by post) (£1.50 paperback, £1.65 by post).*

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Trends in Education

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